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THE CATALOGING OF PUBLICATIONS OF CORPORATE AUTHORS: A REJOINDER

SEYMOUR LUBETZKY

SINCE the spring of 1943, the Library of Congress has been actively reviewing and re-evaluating its cataloging rules and policies. One result of this effort was the revision of its rules for descriptive cataloging. For this purpose the objectives of descriptive cataloging were defined, the old rules re-evaluated in the light of these objectives, and the new rules accordingly redesigned. Like all change, the new rules originally evoked considerable opposition both within and without the Library of Congress and engendered discussion all over the country. Ultimately, however, they were adopted by the Library and approved by the profession.

What happened to the rules of description was to happen also to the rules of entry, and Dr. Taube's study published in the January, 1950, issue of the *Library Quarterly* must be recognized as an important step toward their revision. For, despite the zeal of his criticism and some questionable statements which will be challenged by catalogers, Dr. Taube demonstrates that the rules are not well rooted in logic, are productive of inconsistencies confusing to the cataloger as well as to the reader, and are needlessly

complicated by irrelevant considerations which increase the cost of cataloging and reduce the effectiveness of the catalog. Dr. Taube's analysis should have dispelled whatever doubt still remained that our rules of entry are in need of revision, and it should be studied by all concerned with the subject of cataloging.

There are probably few who would take issue with Dr. Taube's criticism of our corporate rules of entry. However, Dr. Taube does not stop there but goes on to propose "three rules with no exceptions," which, he asserts, could replace the present "over a hundred [rules] plus that many more exceptions" and produce a more logical, consistent, and "bibliographically adequate" catalog at a fraction of the present cataloging cost. Actually, he could have gone further and dispensed with his first rule, *Enter the publications of a corporate entity under its name*, since the very first general rule in both the 1908 and 1941 codes reads: *Enter a work under the name of its author whether individual or corporate*, and thus maintain that he had reduced all other rules for the cataloging of works of corporate authors to two rules. Moreover, these two rules were adopted by Dr.

Taube from subject cataloging practice and parallel the principles of subject entry and subdivision; thus he claims that he has not only solved the problems of entry but has also achieved "a unification of theory of subject cataloging and descriptive cataloging." Ordinarily, such claims would probably be passed up in disbelief. Coming as a conclusion of Dr. Taube's trenchant criticism, his claims deserve careful consideration. Let us, therefore, examine the principles advocated by Dr. Taube and their application in practice, test his rules in the realities of cataloging, and then consider the claims made and the issues involved.

PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICE

In his search for "consistency and simplicity," Dr. Taube relates, he discovered in "the generally accepted principles of subject headings" a solution to the problems of corporate entry. "The Library of Congress Subject Cataloging Division and the Science and Technology Project," he explains, "agree in following the principle of direct and specific headings. This means that a work on analytical geometry is entered under the subject heading 'Analytical geometry' and not under the heading 'Mathematics—Geometry—Analytical'"; hence his first and basic tenet "that the entry must be the specific agency- or corporate body responsible for the report" and, accordingly, "a publication of the National Cancer Institute should be cataloged under 'National Cancer Institute' and not under 'U.S. . . . National Cancer Institute.'" Dr. Taube does not indicate in what respects the author entry is similar to the subject entry, which would make apparent the applicability of analogous rules; still, the author entry and the subject entry are similar in objective—which is to bring together under the same head-

ing in the catalog the works of a given author or on a given subject—and the method used in the preparation of subject entries to achieve this objective might, therefore, also be appropriate for author entries. However, in focusing attention on the principles of subject cataloging, Dr. Taube appears to overlook their application in practice; and, in prescribing a rigid application of these principles to corporate entries, he deviates from, rather than follows, subject cataloging practice, where they are applied with considerable flexibility, tempered by the realities of the catalog and the conflicting needs of its users.

In the first place, it should be noted that our subject headings are not always direct but are often indirect. To take Dr. Taube's own example, the Library of Congress Subject Cataloging Division, with which he agrees "in following the principle of direct and specific headings," actually does *not* use the direct heading "Analytical geometry" but the inverted heading, "Geometry, Analytic," thus bringing together under the heading "Geometry" the related subjects "Geometry, Algebraic," "Geometry, Analytic," "Geometry, Descriptive," "Geometry, Differential," "Geometry, Enumerative," "Geometry, Infinitesimal," etc. Moreover, the Subject Cataloging Division goes even further and subdivides this heading into "Geometry, Analytic—Plane" and "Geometry, Analytic—Solid," rather than use the direct headings "Plane analytical geometry" and "Solid analytical geometry." One may reasonably disagree with some or all of these headings; but one who invokes the principles of subject cataloging should also regard their application in practice. When one contemplates the numerous subdivisions under the heading "U.S.," ranging the whole gamut of the alphabet

from "U.S.—Altitudes" to "U.S.—Territories," and then examines Dr. Taube's rules of corporate entry, one cannot escape the realization that, in forging a "unification of theory," Dr. Taube accomplishes a divergence of practice of descriptive and subject cataloging.

Nor can it be granted that the subject headings are always as specific as the subjects of the books to which they are assigned. If this were the case, our scheme of subject headings would be bewilderingly complicated, and most of the books would be scattered rather than brought together. For example, under the heading "Religion and science" one will find in the catalog works on

- a) religion and science
- b) Christianity and science
 - morals and science
 - God and science
 - immortality and science
- c) evolution and religion
 - nature and religion
 - biology and religion
 - sociology and religion
- d) Christianity and evolution
 - Scriptures and geology
 - Protestantism and capitalism
 - faith and reason
 - etc.

Here the subject heading is quite specific for example *a* but not for the other examples; "Religion" is obviously too broad for those under *b*, "Science" for those under *c*, and both for those under *d*. The reason is, of course, that the specificity of the subject heading is circumscribed by the underlying pattern of subject organization. To assign specific subject headings to all these and similar examples would obviously complicate greatly the subject structure of the catalog and would serve to scatter, rather than bring together, these related works. But that is exactly what Dr. Taube advocates for corporate entries.

The second principle adopted by Dr. Taube from subject cataloging practice concerns the problem of subdivision. This problem arises out of his recognition of the fact "that certain kinds of administrative units are common to a great many agencies or corporate bodies and that, therefore, their names do not constitute acceptable entries." In this case, too, Dr. Taube finds a solution in the principle followed in the preparation of subject subdivisions which he explains as follows:

Since these subdivisions are intended to be used under many different specific entries, both the Library of Congress proper and the Science and Technology Project maintain internally and have published lists of subject subdivisions to be used whenever suitable. From time to time new subdivisions are developed as they are required, and they are added to the existing lists. A subject cataloger does not have to guess whether or not a phrase or term can be used as a subdivision: he searches the list for it. If it is not on the list and he still wishes to use it, it must pass inspection not only for a particular and present use but for addition to the list for general and regular use.

Thus Dr. Taube resolves the problem of subdivision under corporate bodies "by establishing a list of unit names which are to be used as subdivisions and not as entries."

The principle of subject subdivision thus enunciated is without support in theory or in practice. There is no reason why any necessary or desirable subdivisions under any subject "must be capable of being subdivisions of many specific entries" or why they "must pass inspection not only for a particular and present use but for addition to the list for general and regular use." There are many subject subdivisions—particularly geographical and form subdivisions—which can be used under many or all headings, but one need only refer to the Library of Congress list in *Subject Headings* to

see the numerous subdivisions specifically designed for individual headings. The subdivisions "Plane" and "Solid" under "Geometry, Analytic," mentioned before, are examples of such subdivisions. The cataloger who provided for the subject heading "Blood" the subdivisions "Agglutination," "Circulation," "Coagulation," "Transfusion," etc., scarcely concerned himself with their qualification to serve as subdivisions under many other subject headings. Nor is there any similarity in the character of Dr. Taube's corporate and subject subdivisions. The corporate subdivisions, by his definition, are those whose names are "not suitable for entries." There is no such criterion for subject subdivisions. The most common subdivisions—"Bibliography," "History," "Periodicals," etc.—and all geographical subdivisions are used as both main headings and subdivisions.

Dr. Taube's claim of having achieved a unification of descriptive and subject cataloging appears particularly vulnerable when one considers the basic practice of subject cataloging. In establishing a subject heading, the cataloger does not rely on the name by which the subject is called in the book in hand; that name may be obsolete, obscure, or even inaccurate. He investigates the various names by which the subject is known, selects the best known and most accurate name for the heading, and provides references from the other headings to the heading selected. This prevents dispersion of the material under various headings and guides all readers to the subject under whatever name they may look for it. This is precisely the method now followed in establishing author entries. But this is also diametrically different from Dr. Taube's rules, which prescribe that a corporate heading is to be established on the wholly fortuitous basis of the book cataloged.

RULES AND REALITY

One might forgo the theoretical aspect of Dr. Taube's rules if their practical value could be granted; but an attempt to test them in the actual conditions of cataloging will be disillusioning. To reach for the nearest example, the Science and Technology Project, which, he indicates, was the laboratory of his rules, publishes a bulletin entitled *Technical Information Pilot*. Should this bulletin be entered under its title or under the name of the project responsible for it? Dr. Taube's Rule 1 says: *Enter the publications of a corporate entity under its name*, and his rules contain no qualifications or exemptions. Does it mean that no publications of corporate bodies are to be entered under their titles? If the bulletin is to be entered under the name of the project, as would appear from the rules and the note which follows them at the end of Dr. Taube's article, under which name should it be entered? The Science and Technology Project has since undergone a change of name and is now called Navy Research Section. Should the bulletin be entered under the former name, under the later name, or should the earlier issues be entered under the Science and Technology Project and the later under the Navy Research Section? One will search Dr. Taube's rules in vain for an answer to these pertinent questions. Suppose a cataloger decides to enter the bulletin under the Navy Research Section but feels that the name is "not suitable" for entry. Rule 3 instructs him: *In such cases entry is to be made under the next largest administrative unit*; but the bulletin does not disclose what is the next largest unit, and Rule 2 prohibits the cataloger from getting this information from another source, such as the *Annual Report of the Librarian of Congress*.

And there is another example. Should

this *Annual Report of the Librarian of Congress* be entered under the "Librarian of Congress" as stated in the title, the "Library of Congress" which he represents, or the personal name of the librarian who officially signs it and is responsible for it? Here, too, Dr. Taube's rules will fail the cataloger. This paper was prepared for the Library of Congress by one of its employees and is released by the Library. Is it to be cataloged under the name of the Library, under that of the employee, or under both? And again Dr. Taube's rules will fail the cataloger. Or are all these titles illustrations of what Dr. Taube refers to at the conclusion of his article when he says: "There may be publications so unusual, with title pages so misleading, and issued by corporate bodies so complex that they cannot be handled in accordance with our rules."

At the beginning of his discussion of the subject, Dr. Taube admonishes earnestly: "Although it may seem at first glance that descriptive cataloging, as contrasted with subject cataloging or indexing, is or should be a relatively simple and straightforward affair, there are certain problems not always apparent to those who lack firsthand experience with the difficulty of devising uniform entries from the haphazard information which appears on the title pages of the various publications and reports requiring organization"; and he warns against "a blind rejection of the complexities of descriptive cataloging." Had Dr. Taube himself heeded this warning, his conclusions would probably be different; as it is, his rules will only serve to underline the importance of his warning. For, having demonstrated that the entry "U.S. National Cancer Institute" is unsound in logic and unwarranted in practice—and, by implication, all similar headings for government institutions—Dr. Taube proceeds without reservation to sweep

away "the whole collection of special rules for government publications"; and in the next step, finding no reason for the distinction between societies and institutions, he goes on to discard all other corporate rules, replacing all of them by three distilled rules of his own. Had he examined more carefully the rules that he was ready to reject and the materials cataloged under them, he would probably have hesitated at the first corporate rule, whose practical value he could not overlook. This rule says: "Enter under names of countries, states, cities . . . official publications issued by them or under their auspices." Under this rule various publications of the British government are appropriately entered under the heading "Great Britain," regardless of the form of name given in the publication or the absence of any name. If this rule were discarded and the cataloger were to follow Dr. Taube's rule prescribing that *the form of the name is to be determined by information available in the work being cataloged . . .*, he would be confronted with such forms of name as "British Government," "Government of Great Britain," "Government of His Britannic Majesty," "Government of Her Britannic Majesty," "Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland," "His Britannic Majesty," "His Britannic Majesty's Government," "Her Britannic Majesty," "Her Majesty's Government," and many other variations of name. Any one or several of these names, or none, might be given in the first book cataloged; how would it be entered under Dr. Taube's rules?

A survey of the publications issued by various countries, states, cities, etc., and their various legislative and administrative branches and offices will show how confusing these publications often are to the cataloger and will demonstrate the

need of rules providing specific forms under which these generally amorphous publications could usefully be organized. Many of the rules discarded by Dr. Taube were designed precisely for this purpose, and their absence will not help the cataloger and will certainly not improve the quality of the catalog. In addition to the variant forms of name, the publications of foreign countries, cities, etc., will confront Dr. Taube's cataloger with the problem of the language of the heading. Should it be given in the language of the book cataloged or in the vernacular? If the heading is to be given in the language of the book cataloged, the publications of that body will obviously be scattered under the various languages. If it is to be given in the vernacular, how could the cataloger establish the heading under the restrictions of Dr. Taube's Rule 2 when the book in hand gives the name in translation only? And how is a cataloger to determine, under Dr. Taube's rules, what is the "corporate entity" under which the "Documents of the United Nations Conference on International Organization, San Francisco, 1945" should be entered. Is it the United Nations or the conference? If a conference is self-evidently a corporate body, how are the reports of the First, Eighth, or Thirteenth International Conference on ——— to be entered under these new rules — under "First International Conference . . .," etc., or under "International Conference . . ., First," etc.? And in what language should the heading of an international body be given? One could easily go on and extend this list of examples and questions which the rules leave unanswered. If in all these instances, following Dr. Taube's final suggestion at the end of his article, "the cataloger could enter the publications in any way he pleases . . .," would the cataloging

product really be "bibliographically more consistent, more logical, and easier to use"?

Dr. Taube's belief that all corporate rules of entry could be reduced to two or three rules is obviously based on the illusion that all corporate bodies and their various subdivisions could conveniently be divided into two categories: those whose names are "suitable" for entry and those whose names are "not suitable" for entry; the former could readily be entered directly under their names, the latter under the names of the "next largest" units. This is essentially all the guidance Dr. Taube's rules provide, leaving to the catalogers themselves to determine what is a corporate body (or "corporate entity"), what is to be regarded as the publication of a corporate body, when and what kind of additional entries are required, what is properly "the name" of the corporate body and what elements or words are to be omitted from the name, what kind of cross-references should be made to the name, etc., and ignoring the vexing problems arising from changes of name, the existence of variant forms of name, the various languages in which the name may appear, the organization of the elements of the name, the necessary qualifications of the name, and "the haphazard information which appears on the title pages" of which Dr. Taube spoke earlier. However, for the first and basic question of the cataloger—what names are "suitable" for entry and what names are not?—Dr. Taube offers what he justly claims as an original solution: the establishment of "a list of unit names which are to be used as subdivisions and not as entries." Thus, Dr. Taube explains, "if we are confronted with a publication by the Yale University Department of Physics, our list will tell us that 'Department of . . .

under universities and colleges' is always a subdivision and never an entry."

To get an idea of what is involved in the preparation of such a "list of unit names," it may be well to pursue Dr. Taube's example a little further in the catalog. There one will find under "Yale University" also such unit names as Aeromedical Research Unit, Alumni Board, Associates in Fine Arts, Association of the Alumni, Bureau of Appointments, Catholic Club, Class of 1896, Clinic of Child Development, Committee on Transportation, Council on the Library and Museums, Directive Committee on Regional Planning, Divinity School, Elizabethan Club, Gallery of Fine Arts, Graduate School, Institute of International Studies, Labor and Management Center, Laboratory of Applied Physiology, Library, Medical Library, Mineralogical Society, Observatory, President's Committee on University Development, Psychological Laboratory, School of Engineering, University Press, etc. Proceeding to "Harvard University," one will find additional unit names, such as Archives, Board of Overseers, Botanical Museum, Bureau for Economic Research in Latin America, Bureau of Vocational Guidance, Chinese-Japanese Library, Committee on Economic Research, Dramatic Club, Faculty of Arts and Science, Germanic Museum, Graduate School of Arts and Sciences, Library of the Departments of Landscape Architecture and Regional Planning, Museum of Comparative Zoölogy, Russian Research Center, Semitic Museum, etc. These two samples will indicate how numerous and varied are the names of university units alone, most or all of which would have to be examined, selected, and listed. If one stops to think of the names of the subdivisions and units found under the infinite number

and constantly growing and changing variety of corporate organizations all over the world and in the various languages, one cannot seriously concede that such a list as that recommended by Dr. Taube could really be prepared and maintained without research and without an extravagant cost, that the preparation and maintenance of such a list is of "bibliographical significance," or that it would facilitate the use of the catalog by the reader, who would scarcely be able to absorb this list with Dr. Taube's rules in "a few minutes' time."

FACT AND FANCY

At the conclusion of his article Dr. Taube undertakes to summarize and explain how cataloging under his rules would achieve the claims made by him earlier. Let us now examine the facts enumerated by him in the light of the foregoing discussion.

1. Cataloging will be faster because a considerable portion of the research, beyond the book in hand and the record of material already cataloged, is eliminated.

Obviously, if the research done in cataloging is to be limited to the book in hand and the record of previous cataloging, the rate of cataloging will rise. However, this is not a matter of cataloging rules but of regulative cataloging policy. If this limitation is defensible, it could be applied also to the cataloging rules now in effect, with the prospect of a corresponding gain. Such a limitation need not be construed as contrary to the present rules but should be regarded, rather, as a policy to be followed in the application of the rules. The essential justification of present cataloging research, as indicated above, is to enable the cataloger to select the most appropriate form of name for the author head-

ing and to provide the necessary references from the other names under which the corporate body may be known and from related bodies, in order to avoid dispersion of the publications of this body and related bodies and to guide all readers to these publications regardless of the names under which the readers may look for them. If this objective can be dispensed with or can be achieved to a reasonable degree without verification in other sources, then Dr. Taube's proposed limitation on research should be applied also under the present cataloging rules. If not, Dr. Taube's rules will fall short of this objective and will be inadequate. A study of the effect of a similar limitation on cataloging research is discussed later.

2. Research beyond the book in hand and the record of material previously cataloged does not contribute materially to the achievement of consistent entries and does introduce into the cataloging process extraneous considerations relating to administrative history, law, financial structure, etc., which have no bibliographical significance for the users of the catalog.

The two parts of this statement must be considered separately. Dr. Taube's assertion that research "does not contribute materially to the achievement of consistent entries" must be regarded as dubious. He demonstrates from the experience in co-operative cataloging that research in sources other than the book in hand does not insure uniformity of entry by various libraries; it does not follow by logical deduction that cataloging without research would not produce "materially" less consistent entries within any library and between libraries. As already mentioned, the effect of such limitation on research is considered later.

The second part is surprising as a patently illogical allegation in a case

based largely on logic. To assert that research beyond the book "does introduce into the cataloging process extraneous considerations" is to ascribe to an instrument the faults of some of its users. Obviously, research itself does not introduce any considerations, it merely reveals them. If irrelevant facts are introduced, the fault is clearly that of the cataloger or of the rules followed by him. To restrict cataloging research on such grounds is to imply that it is bad for a cataloger to know more about an item he catalogs than is revealed by the books handled by him.

3. The number of necessary rules has been reduced from over a hundred, plus that many more exceptions, to three rules with no exceptions.

The foregoing examination does not bear out Dr. Taube's claim that he has reduced the number of *necessary* rules. As has been shown before, his rules leave many questions unanswered and are quite insufficient for the requirements of the materials ordinarily cataloged in a general library. Earlier in his article Dr. Taube quotes a memorandum of his own, setting forth that "a code for cataloging scientific reports . . . should be detailed, as is required by the material to be cataloged. . . ." It would be difficult to maintain that Dr. Taube's three rules meet this requirement.

4. By virtue of (1) and (3), the cost of cataloging can be substantially reduced.

Nobody could dispute this conclusion—if the virtues of (1) and (3) were indisputable. Unfortunately, this is not the case, as has already been indicated in the discussion of these points.

5. The elimination of exceptions and of the multiplicity of conflicting rules results in a more consistent and logical catalog. . . .

This is also incontestable in principle.

In practice, however, the mere elimination of exceptions and conflicting rules does not, in itself, create a logical and consistent code; it may produce something worse than an inconsistent code, namely, a vacuum. This appears to be precisely what Taube accomplished when he swept out wholesale the present rules with their inconsistencies and irrelevancies but failed to provide other rules adequate for the materials cataloged under the present rules.

6. Any user of a catalog who wishes to spare a few minutes' time can learn our rules of entry for corporate bodies. . . .

7. Similarly, catalogers can be trained in half a day to use our rules. . . .

At this point these claims are irrelevant, for, if Dr. Taube's rules are of no avail, there is no virtue in the fact that they can easily be learned by the cataloger as well as by the reader. In pursuit of simpler and more consistent rules, Dr. Taube appears to have given insufficient consideration to the fact that the present multiplicity of rules sprang not from pure caprice but from the variety of the materials encountered, although he has very persuasively demonstrated the fissures in their logical structure and the flaws in their practical design.

ISSUES IN BALANCE

Beyond the questions of the validity of Dr. Taube's principles, the practicability of his rules, and the merits of his claims, three of the issues raised by him deserve special attention.

QUESTION OF ENTRY

The first issue relates to the distinction, made in the present corporate rules, between governments, institutions, and societies. Exploiting the names of the National Cancer Institute, which is en-

tered under "U.S.," and the British Museum, Bibliothèque Nationale, and the Library of Congress, of which the first is entered directly under its name, the second under the name of the city, Paris, and the third under the name of the country, "U.S.," he argues very cogently that these distinctions are irrelevant to the purposes of the catalog and the needs of its users, that they complicate and increase the cost of cataloging, and that they make the catalog more difficult to understand and use. Here Dr. Taube has pointed out a fundamental weakness in the structure of our cataloging rules and a way of making them more logical, more simple, and more purposeful. One cardinal principle which underlies the establishment of author and subject headings is to enter material under the names and the headings under which it is most likely to be looked for in the catalog by the reader. Is there any reason why we should expect a reader to look for material on the National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis under this name but the National Cancer Institute under "U.S."; the National Committee on Atomic Information under its name but the National Committee on Radiation Protection under "U.S."; the National Film Music Council under its name but the National Film Library under "London"? Is there any bibliographical significance in the fact that an institution is supported by private or public funds which would require that it be entered differently in each of these cases? Of course, we plant a sign under "National Cancer Institute" to direct the reader to look for it under "U.S." But should we not do it the other way around? Here Dr. Taube makes a constructive contribution to the revision of our rules.

QUESTION OF SUBDIVISION

Having achieved considerable simplification by extending the principle of direct entry to all corporate bodies regardless of origin, character, and source of income, Dr. Taube proceeds to extend it further, vertically, to the subdivisions and parts of a corporate body *unless the name of the part is contained in a standard list of names not suitable for entries*. The practical considerations involved in the preparation of such a list were considered before, but what are the intrinsic merits of this rule? Here, too, doubts will arise.

In the first place, the publication of a minor unit is not always associated with the name of that unit. There may be a statement inside the book indicating the unit which prepared the publication, but the title-page may give prominence only to the larger division or the corporate body responsible for it. Also, there is often an overlapping responsibility, and it is difficult to decide whether the publication should be regarded as the work of the larger division or of the smaller unit. Such publications will be referred to and looked for by some under the name of the larger division and by others under the name of the smaller unit. In this case the present rules are more helpful to the reader by bringing together the publications of the major division and its minor subdivisions. Under Dr. Taube's proposal these publications might be scattered under the names of the individual units and lost to the reader.

Second, minor subdivisions of corporate bodies, even if their names are "suitable for entry," are often unknown to those interested in them. For example, the readers of the *Library Quarterly* may occasionally be interested in the reports and surveys of various university librar-

ies. They can now find them without difficulty under the names of the universities; but how many are sufficiently familiar with the special names of the various university libraries and their branches, named after their donors, faculty members, special functions, etc., to find their reports under these names? In this case, too, the present rules entering all such subdivisions under the names of the universities, whether or not their names are suitable for entry, are obviously more helpful than Dr. Taube's proposal would be for most users of the catalog.

Third, it must be recalled that corporate headings, like all other author headings, serve not only an author function but also a subject function. They are consulted by those who want publications *by* these organizations as well as by those who want publications *about* them. It is apparent that the interests of the latter would not be well served by Dr. Taube's proposal, which would separate the publications of and about the various subdivisions of an organization from those of and about the organization as a whole whenever the subdivisions had names suitable for entry. Of course, what Dr. Taube sought in this rule was to spare the cataloger the question of what is a major division, which should be entered under its own name, and what is a minor subdivision, which should be entered under the name of the organization; but in this case he would relieve the cataloger at the expense of the users of the catalog. The subject cataloger is frequently faced with a similar question in deciding whether to enter a subject heading directly or indirectly. He may decide that American, French, and German literature are major subjects and enter them as "American literature," "French

literature," and "German literature," but he may regard American, French, and German folklore as subdivisions of the subject "Folklore" and enter them as "Folklore, American," "Folklore, French," and "Folklore, German." His decision will not always be right and will never conform to everyone else's, but it is calculated to meet most frequently the approach of most users of the catalog. The criterion of "suitable" and "unsuitable" names, as defined by Dr. Taube, is inadequate for determining direct entry or subdivision.

QUESTION OF RESEARCH

As noted before, Dr. Taube combines cataloging rules and policy, and his three rules provide not only how corporate names should be entered but also that these names "be determined by information available in the work being cataloged and in authority lists from cataloging previous works and from these two sources only." The relevance of this provision to his other rules was considered before. Here the merits of this issue will be considered.

A rigid application of this policy, as required by Dr. Taube, is scarcely desirable or practicable. To impose a blanket restriction which would prohibit the cataloger from consulting a readily available reference work when the information in the book cataloged and in the authority list is clearly inadequate or confusing is to substitute rigid rule for balanced reason. Applied with reasonable flexibility, it may not be without merit. It has actually been in effect in the Library of Congress since April, 1949, but its application is restricted to personal names. The Processing Department Memorandum No. 60, which was reproduced in

Cataloging Service (Bull. 20) and is authority for this policy, prescribes:

New personal name entries to be used in all cataloging shall hereafter be established on the basis of "no conflict," that is, a personal name shall be established in the form given in the work being cataloged without further search, provided that, as given in the work being cataloged, the name conforms to the A.L.A. rules for entry, and is not so similar to another name previously established as to give a good basis for the suspicion that both names refer to the same person. When the nationality of an author must be established and his period identified for subject cataloging purposes, the search will be made by the descriptive cataloger.

The reluctance to extend this "no conflict" policy to corporate authors is due to the fact that the longevity of corporate bodies is ordinarily greater than that of individuals, that their names are more frequently changed, that they are not infrequently known and referred to under variant forms of names at the same time, and, consequently, that the application of this policy to corporate names would do more damage to the catalog than it does in the case of personal names. To determine what would be the effect on the catalog if the "no conflict" policy were extended to corporate authors, a sample study was recently made by Mr. Joseph S. Allen, editor of the card catalogs, Catalog Maintenance Division. His study and conclusions are summarized in the following extracts:

The publications of 90 corporate bodies entered in the public card catalog of the Library of Congress were selected as the basis of the comparison. The aim in the selection was to obtain a representative group of various types of corporate entities: societies, private institutions, and governmental agencies and institutions.

The headings are divided as follows: societies, 45; institutions, 45 (subdivided thus: private institutions, 17; governmental agencies and institutions, 28).

The corporate bodies are established by the Library of Congress in the following languages:

	Societies	Private Institutions	Govt. Agencies	Total
English	27		9	36
French	9	13	2	24
German	3	2	9	14
Spanish	1	1	8	10
Swedish	5			5
Portuguese		1		1
Total				90

Under these 90 corporate headings there are a total of 783 entries, composed of main entries, added entries, and subject entries.

In the publications of and about these 90 corporate bodies 237 different forms of name appear. In other words, for every body there is an average of slightly less than 3 forms of name. For 37 bodies there is but one form of name; this is 41% of the total. The remaining 53 bodies account for 200 forms of name: 22 have 2 forms of name, 10 have 3 forms, 8 have 4 forms, 5 have 5 forms, 4 have 6 forms, 2 have 8 forms, 1 has 12 forms, and 1 has 17 forms.

The following table lists the languages in which name changes and variant names occurred:

	Total No. of Corporate Bodies in Survey	No. with Name Changes and Variant Names	Per Cent
English	36	20	56
French	24	10	42
German	14	9	64
Spanish	10	8	80
Swedish	5	5	100
Portuguese	1	1	100
Total	90	53	59

The publications of the 90 corporate bodies in the experiment were examined in order to apply the "no conflict" method to these corporate names.

Instead of 90 headings the "no conflict" method produced 118 headings.

Publications of 72 of the 90 bodies remain under one heading when the "no conflict" method is employed. 13 of the 90 are divided under 2 headings, 3 are divided under 3 head-

ings, 1 under 4 headings, and 1 under 7 headings.

The 28 incorrect headings consist of earlier or later names and variant names of 17 different corporate bodies and one anonymous entry. Of these 17 bodies, 9 underwent changes in name. These are divided as follows: 6 societies, 1 private institution, and 2 governmental agencies. In the other 8 bodies variant names occurred; these are composed of 3 societies, 4 private institutions, and 1 governmental agency. One of the bodies which underwent name changes also had variant names.

The following point cannot be too strongly emphasized. In many instances, the two forms of name (variants or name changes) have been identified as one corporate body by means of information in *only one* publication. If the Library did not happen to possess this one publication, or in the case of a serial one particular volume of a set, the cataloger would not discover that the two forms represent a single organization, and thus the publication would be separated under two headings.

If the Library of Congress had not received the publication or certain volumes of serial titles containing the information concerning changes in name and variations in name, 46 incorrect headings would have been established. This total is in addition to the 28 incorrect headings established by the use of all the publications in the Library under the 90 headings.

These results must be further examined and evaluated, the indications being that certain categories of corporate names have greater stability than others, but they must give one pause before extending the limitations on research in cataloging to corporate authors.

To take issue with Dr. Taube's principles and rules is not to minimize in the slightest the value of his criticism of our present rules. Those who are aware of the inadequacies of our rules and are looking forward to their revision and reformation will be grateful to Dr. Taube for having illuminated the situation and for having stimulated the search for ways to make cataloging more rational, purposeful, and economical.

DOCUMENTATION: ITS SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS

JESSE H. SHERA

THOUGH the term "documentation" is not of recent origin, attempts to define it precisely have been conspicuously unsuccessful. Usually, it has been described in such vague terms as "a process by which are brought together, classified, and distributed, all the documents of all kinds of all the areas of human activity." It was so understood by Paul Otlet, whose *Traité de documentation*¹ is now regarded as a classic discussion of the subject. The late S. C. Bradford closely followed Otlet by making of documentation "the art of collecting, classifying and making readily accessible the records of all kinds of intellectual activity, . . . the process by which . . . is . . . put before the creative specialist the existing literature, bearing on the subject of his investigation, in order that he may be made fully aware of previous achievements in his subject, and thus be saved from the dissipation of his genius upon work already done."² Kathrine Murra provisionally accepted the definition of the *Schweizer Lexikon*, which called it the "handling and organization of scholarly materials."³ Egan and Shera avoided the issue by making documentation a part of what, on this side of the Atlantic, is usu-

ally understood as "bibliographic control,"⁴ a term which, incidentally, they have rejected in favor of "bibliographic organization." Finally, one Yankee, hypersensitive to his professional status and with one eye on the roster of the Fédération Internationale de Documentation (hereafter referred to as "FID" or "International Federation for Documentation") and the other on the curriculum of the École des Chartes, has proclaimed documentation to be "librarianship performed by amateurs."

Yet from even these broad generalizations concerning the function of documentation, lacking in specificity though they be, it is possible to hypothesize about certain characteristics of documentation that will contribute to its definition. From the foregoing it seems clear that documentation is limited to that aspect of bibliographic organization which treats of the materials and needs of scholars and, hence, is concerned with the scholarly apparatus of bibliographies, indexes, and abstracting services. Therefore, documentation is to be regarded as an essential part of our modern system of graphic communication within the world of scholarship, an instrumental device to expedite the flow of recorded information within a group of specialists or between various groups of specialists. It is not concerned with the flow of communication at the popular, nonspecialist, or lay-public levels. Obviously, it is *not* con-

¹ Paul Otlet, *Traité de documentation: Le Livre sur le livre, théorie et pratique* (Bruxelles: Editions Mundaenum, 1934), pp. 6-8.

² S. C. Bradford, *Documentation* (London: Crosby Lockwood & Son, 1948), p. 11.

³ Kathrine O. Murra, "Second Interim Report of the UNESCO/Library of Congress Bibliographical Planning Group," "Appendix, Library of Congress Information Bulletin" (September 13-19, 1949), p. 6. See also Leo M. Kern, *Grundfragen der Dokumentation* (Bern: Buehler & Co., 1948), pp. 3-5.

⁴ Margaret E. Egan and Jesse H. Shera, "Prolegomena to Bibliographic Control," *Journal of Cataloging and Classification*, V (winter, 1949), 17.

cerned with the great bulk of the mass communication mediums, which are completely under the control of the transmitting agent, such as the radio, motion picture, or newspaper, *except* as such materials may have historical significance.

The essential task of documentation, then, may be described as the matching of two patterns: (a) the pattern of all scholarly activities in which the use of *primary* graphic records plays a part and (b) the pattern of intermediary services which transmit *primary* recorded materials from the scholar-as-producer to the scholar-as-user. By contrast, bibliographic organization is concerned with the channeling of graphic records to *all* users, for *all* purposes, and at *all* levels in such a way as to maximize the social utilization of recorded human experience.

Finally, documentation is *secondary* communication, in that it is not concerned with direct communication between specialist and specialist or, indeed, with communication within groups of specialists so small in number as to make any intermediary service unnecessary.⁵ In summary, then, one may say that documentation is that portion of bibliographic organization that is involved with the *indirect* communication of *primary* materials within and among groups of specialists, to the end that they will receive, in a manner as efficient as possible, the data which they require for the effective execution of their work.

HISTORICAL SKETCH

To treat in any detail the complex history of documentation in Europe and America is obviously beyond the scope of the present paper;⁶ nevertheless, there are certain "landmark" agencies and services the importance of which cannot

be ignored in even so brief a discussion as this. Such a survey should probably begin with the work of the Royal Society of London, which, during the years from 1851 to 1925, sought, through the publication of its *Catalogue of Scientific Papers*, to index the scientific periodicals of the nineteenth century. The result was an author list of scientific articles in the periodical literature of the past century, as well as subject indexes for pure mathematics, physics, and mechanics. The same society collaborated in the publication of *The International Catalogue of Scientific Literature*, the object of which was to prepare a subject index to the twentieth-century literature of seventeen branches of science but which was never carried beyond the year 1914. Both undertakings depended for their support upon subventions from the society and the British government, donations from individuals, and revenue from the sale of the materials themselves.

The *Concilium bibliographicum*, begun in 1895 and terminated in 1930, is of particular interest here as representing a bibliographic undertaking that was almost entirely the work of a single man, Dr. Herbert Haviland Field, whose ambition was the international organization

⁵ For a fuller discussion of these definitions as applied to the processes of bibliographic organization see the Preface to the forthcoming "Bibliographic Organization: Papers Presented before the Fifteenth Annual Conference of the Graduate Library School," to be published shortly by the University of Chicago Press.

⁶ For comprehensive treatments of the history of documentation see Kathrine O. Murra, "Notes on the Development of the Concept of Current Complete National Bibliography," published as an appendix to the "UNESCO/Library of Congress Bibliographical Survey" (Washington, 1950); also Kathrine O. Murra, "Some Attempts To Organize Bibliography Internationally" in the forthcoming "Bibliographic Organization: Papers Presented before the Fifteenth Annual Conference of the Graduate Library School."

of the literature of zoology. The *Concilium* appeared as a bibliographic service in card form, classified according to its own elaborate expansion of the Dewey scheme. Later, a bibliographic index appeared in bulletin form. The project was supported by grants from the Swiss Confederation, the canton and city of Zurich, the Zoological Station at Naples, the American Association for the Advancement of Science, and numerous other sources, including the personal funds of Dr. Field himself. The death of the founder in 1924 was a blow from which the venture never recovered—a dramatic example of how international bibliography should not be organized.

The best-known of all the agencies for the encouragement of documentation is the organization founded in 1895 by Paul Otlet and Henri La Fontaine as the International Institute of Bibliography. Established under the auspices of, and with partial support from, the Belgian government, its original objective was fivefold: (1) to publish a journal that would serve as a medium for the exchange of information on bibliographic organization; (2) to serve as a clearing-house for bibliographic information; (3) to expand the Decimal Classification; (4) to establish a union catalog of world literature; and (5) to promote international meetings on bibliographic organization. In 1924 its character was changed from an international association of individual scholars to a federation of national groups, and in 1931 its official name became the International Institute for Documentation. Aided by gifts from the Royal Dutch Oil Company and the Rockefeller Foundation and by contributions from its affiliated organizations, it largely abandoned the original plan for a world documentation center and directed its attention toward the co-ordination of

bibliographic services wherever they might be discovered. The publication of its official journal was continued, as was also its interest in expanding and encouraging the use of the Universal Decimal Classification. At frequent intervals, it sponsored international meetings on bibliographic organization. Six years later, in 1937, the name was again changed, this time to the International Federation for Documentation, and its objective further restricted to the co-ordination of the activities of its member groups, though it did not abandon its paternal solicitude for the U.D.C. Its official publications are still an important source of information concerning the theory and practice of bibliographic organization, and it has maintained a continuing interest in the encouragement of international conferences; but it is perhaps best known (and most severely criticized in this country) for its vigorous promotion of the U.D.C. Today it is largely dependent for support upon the contributions of its affiliates, voluntary gifts from individual donors, and the sale of its publications. The American affiliate is, of course, the American Documentation Institute, which, only within recent months, has begun the publication of its official organ, *American Documentation*, made possible by a grant from the Carnegie Corporation. Admittedly, the original dream of Otlet and La Fontaine for a world documentation center and bibliographic service has fallen far short of realization, but the FID is still an important force for the encouragement of organized bibliographic activity.

Other international organizations which sought to encourage bibliographic organization should be mentioned briefly. Between the years 1925 and 1946, the International Committee on Intellectual Cooperation, sponsored by the League of

Nations, brought together subject specialists for the study of bibliographic problems in their respective fields, and in other ways studied and aided the better organization of literary, artistic, and scientific works. Perhaps its most tangible accomplishment was the publication, in 1925, of the *Index bibliographicus: An International Catalogue of Sources of Current Bibliographical Information (Periodicals and Institutions)*, arranged and edited for the committee by Marcel Godet, director of the Swiss National Library, and revised in 1931. After a quarter of a century the work is still an important contribution to international bibliography. The committee also sponsored the International Institute of Intellectual Cooperation, which, with support from the French government, gave grants-in-aid for bibliographic work, including bibliographies, directories, journals, etc., and provided a forum for the discussion of bibliographic problems in subject fields.

Beginning in 1927, the International Federation of Library Associations began a series of meetings at which information on library and bibliographic problems might be exchanged. It also sponsored the publication of the proceedings of these meetings as a permanent contribution to the literature of international bibliographic problems. Finally, at the present time, UNESCO is giving active support to the improvement of subject bibliography by giving grants-in-aid for bibliographic work in the area of international bibliography and is sponsoring international meetings to encourage the study of problems of international bibliographic organization and the search for solutions that would promote international co-operation in documentation.

One should not desert the international scene without mention of one or-

ganization, the Association of Special Libraries and Information Bureaux (ASLIB), which, though not international in the sense characteristic of those previously mentioned, has, through its wholly admirable official organ, the *Journal of Documentation*, contributed greatly to the promotion of documentation far beyond its native England. Established in 1924 "to consider, promote and organize the systematic utilization of informational and library services," it was a British parallel to the American Special Libraries Association, though its membership included many directors of scientific and technical organizations as well as bibliographers and librarians of such agencies. Its financial support has come largely from the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, with some assistance, since 1944, from the British government. Its major contribution to international bibliography may probably be dated from 1945, when it began the sponsorship of the previously mentioned *Journal of Documentation* under the editorship of Theodore Bestermann. Its international ties were further strengthened in 1948, when it absorbed the British Society for International Bibliography, the English affiliate of FID.

At the national level, documentation in America may be conveniently classified into four major categories, according to the source from which it derives the bulk of its support.

1. *The federal government.*—Ever since the days of Charles C. Jewett and the early years of the Smithsonian Institution, the federal government has recognized the importance of documentation and has taken some steps toward its encouragement. Conspicuous examples are the Union Catalog of the Library of Congress, which was initiated by a foundation grant; the *Bibliography of Agricul-*

ture, issued by the library of the Department of Agriculture and an outstanding example of bibliographic achievement; the several special bibliographies issued by the Census Library Project, a joint undertaking of the Library of Congress and the Bureau of the Census; the Index-Catalogue of the Army Medical Library; the numerous regional union catalogs developed largely by assistance from the Works Progress Administration; *Writings on American History*, an annual publication sponsored by the American Historical Association but receiving financial aid from government funds; and the bibliographic publications of the Library of Congress.

2. *Learned societies, professional associations, and academic institutions.*—One would do well to consider the three types of agencies as a single unit, inasmuch as more than one are frequently involved in a single undertaking. Here might be cited *Chemical Abstracts*, sponsored by the American Chemical Society; *Engineering Index*, sponsored by the American Society of Mechanical Engineers co-operating closely with the Engineering Societies Library of New York; other abstracting services which tended to follow the pattern set by *Chemical Abstracts* (e.g., *Biological Abstracts* and *Psychological Abstracts*); *Population Index*; and the late lamented *Social Science Abstracts*.

3. *Commercial enterprises.*—In general, bibliography has not proved to be a commercially profitable undertaking, and libraries will, of course, think of the work of the H. W. Wilson Company as being the prime example of the successful commercialization of bibliography. However, the broader concept of documentation would include such commercial services as those issued by the Commerce Clearing House, the McGraw-Hill Publishing Company, and the legal services designed

to facilitate the use of the rapidly expanding and increasingly intricate body of law.

4. *Special libraries.*—The entire special library movement is, of course, an implicit acknowledgment on the part of industry and business of the fact that the organization of documentation for the use of its research and administrative personnel is economically profitable to private enterprise. This is especially true for industrial research, where the organization of private research reports is a vital problem in documentation.

Even this cursory history of documentation is sufficient to make certain conclusions abundantly clear: (1) A real social need for documentation has been recognized by widely divergent groups, representing disparate subject interests and bibliographic requirements; (2) attempts at the solution of problems of documentation have largely languished in "intellectual isolation," ignorance of contemporaneous developments in other areas, and disregard of previous errors that a better knowledge of history might have prevented; (3) documentation can be successful—and conspicuously so—when its organization and management are based on thorough understanding of the needs to be met and the resources available; (4) successful documentation demands the co-ordination of all resources—intellectual, organizational, and economic; (5) leadership in the promotion of documentation is already widely recognized as a proper responsibility of the federal government; and (6) far too much time and money have been wasted in unprofitable discussion which has failed to result either in searching investigation of the problems to be solved or in constructive action within even the limited range of our present knowledge. With these lessons of history clearly be-

fore us, let us examine more closely the character of documentation itself.

APPROACHES TO DOCUMENTATION

TYPES OF USERS

There are two possible major approaches to the problems of documentation: (1) by type of user and (2) by agency or organizational unit. In large measure the two are closely interrelated and even interdependent, though, for the sake of clarity, they will here be dealt with separately. One should also add that it is desirable to consider the types of users in terms of the properties and *forms* of the literature that they need and now have available to them, as well as by the *type* of information with which they are concerned.

Pure scientists.—The characteristic of the literature which is of primary interest to the pure scientists (e.g., physicists, chemists, and astronomers) is that it records the establishment of a new fact or cluster of facts, a new relationship among facts previously known, or a new method for the manipulation of techniques or data already known. Hence, the scientist needs *comprehensive* and *primary* materials for the results (factual findings) that they set forth, for verification of those findings, or for the presentation of the method which he may possibly apply, with or without modifications, to the problems in which he himself is immediately concerned. He needs not only single, isolated facts (the atomic weight of a newly discovered element, for example) but *all* facts of a given class (i.e., the atomic weights of all the elements) for bases of comparison and relationship. In addition, he requires easy access to all established *descriptive* facts about one particular element, compound, or substance, such as the physical and chemical properties of aluminum, of the

halides of silver, or of a newly developed alcohol. Finally, he needs access to the literature of all *problems* that have been approached through the application of a particular *method* or through a particular *principle*, *hypothesis*, or *law*. He may be as much interested in the reporting of failures or partial successes as in verified results. Because the research materials that the pure scientist needs are primary and unique and do not permit of substitution, his bibliographic requirements call for a *comprehensive* index of the *entirety* of the primary literature of research that falls within the limits of his subject field. The internal arrangement of that literature, its classification, indexing, subject grouping, etc., must permit approaches to it by type of material dealt with, by the physical and chemical "environment" of the reaction, by results of investigation, by method employed, and by any other possible groupings that may be meaningful to him.

In addition to the specific bibliographic needs of his immediate purposes, the pure scientist must be kept informed of activities in related areas of research. Here his requirements are much less exhaustive and precise, in that he does not need to be conversant with every experiment or with every detail of every account in which he may have a general interest. In such areas the best service for him may be the bibliographic essay. Such essays are surveys or summaries of the more important bibliographic contributions in specified problem areas and tend to emphasize the interrelationships of the several parts with the whole and to delineate the importance of such contributions in and to peripheral subject areas.

The interests in the separate subject fields of the pure sciences are so divergent and the bibliographic requirements of

the specialists working in these disciplines so varied that no single bibliographic service can be made to serve all of them. Hence arises the demand for separate services in such fields as chemistry, physics, mathematics, etc. Furthermore, these indexes should be retrospective and should be cumulated at frequent intervals. They are *collective*, or library, tools designed to meet the bibliographic problems of groups of scientists using the literature largely in library situations, whether these libraries be subject departments in large public, academic (i.e., college and university), or special libraries created specifically for the use of the research staff of an industrial organization. By contrast, the bibliographic essay needs revision rather than cumulation and is designed primarily for individual, rather than for collective, use.

Technicians.—The second major group of users of documentation are the technicians, a class composed of engineers, mechanics, inventors, and manufacturers. Their needs are sharply contrasted with those of the pure scientists, in that they are primarily concerned with the *results* of research rather than the materials, methods, or verifications of the experimental process. The established facts with which the technicians deal, though they may emanate from the work of the pure scientists, can be in large part derived from *secondary* sources, such as manuals, handbooks, guides, trade catalogs, and similar compilations of data. But there are times, particularly when work is being done in fields characterized by the rapid discovery of new data, when the technicians, too, must have access to the *primary* literature of pure science. In such cases they would, of course, make use of the documentation services employed by the pure scientists.

The technician must also have readily

available the large body of literature that reports the activities of his colleagues in identical or related technologies. Such literature is characteristically experiential and descriptive; it reports to the reader the development of a new process, the solution to problems encountered in a new installation, or the characteristics of a new mechanism. In the purest sense it is *instrumental*, in that it gives to the engineer, for example, a case history of the construction of a new type of dam, the technical data on a new steam turbine, the operating characteristics of a new vacuum tube or electronic relay. Such materials present a factor of *exchangeability* which is not to be found in the research literature of pure science, and access need not be exhaustive. The hydraulic engineer may wish to study the case histories of the construction of a number of dams that seem to present problems similar to those by which he is confronted, but he certainly feels no compulsion to pore over the history of the building of every dam that was ever constructed. Likewise, he may find that the reporting of experiences in certain kinds of non-dam construction will be very pertinent to his own work. Thus bibliographic guides to this experiential literature should be highly selective, but its internal arrangement and organization should admit of a variety of approaches: by materials employed, by methods used, by place where construction has been effected, and by climate, temperature, or other physical factors which might conceivably have a bearing on the results. The classification of patent literature is an excellent case in point, in which it is necessary to organize a vast and complex literature according to structure, function or effect, and the "art" involved.

The technician, like the pure scientist,

finds it necessary to keep abreast of new developments in his own and related fields, but for this purpose the substantive journal of a profession or trade is probably a more effective medium than a bibliographic service. Though this is largely a personal rather than a bibliographic or documentation problem, it should be pointed out that the ways in which technicians make use of this substantive literature are important to the organizational problems of documentation and need much more investigation and study than they have received in the past. Certain journals, for example, such as *Nature* or *Science*, admit of, and are typographically so arranged as to encourage, reasonably thorough and careful study. Other publications, like the *Journal of the American Chemical Society*, each issue of which is bulky, relatively cumbersome, and closely printed, are seldom, if ever, read "from cover to cover" but are consulted only when relevant materials are cited elsewhere. Technical and trade publications, by contrast, are often characterized by comparatively slight and unimportant substantive or editorial matter but contain a very substantial bulk of advertising, which is heavily used by technicians as a quick and easy source of information concerning new technical developments. From a careful analysis of the professional reading habits of both pure scientists and technicians, important data may be obtained that would contribute to the solution of problems in documentation.

In existing situations the line of demarcation between pure scientists and technicians is often not easily distinguishable; at times each group may operate in the manner of the other, and the functions of both are not infrequently combined in the work of a single individ-

ual. For our immediate purposes, the need for clarity and simplification has dictated a sharpening of boundaries that may well be regarded as somewhat over-emphatic. Also, what has been said here about the requirements of scholars and technicians in the physical sciences applies equally to social scientists and even, to some extent, to the humanists. In the social sciences the distinction between pure scientist and technician is frequently very ill-defined indeed. The physical scientists, therefore, have been chosen as an example, partly because their methods of operation may be described with greater precision and partly for the reason that they, more than the other groups, have effectively developed the bibliographic services of their discipline.

Educators and students.—The bibliographic needs of the educator and the student at the level of professional preparation are not unlike those of both the preceding groups, depending, of course, upon the character of the research pursued or the course of study involved. Suffice it here to point out that every graduate student should be made fully conscious of the purposes and limitations of the documentary services and bibliographic tools in his area of specialization and that all professional preparation for advanced degrees should include adequate instruction in the relevant sources of bibliographic information. Only through such pedagogic methods can personnel be trained who will at once be skilled in the requisite bibliographic resources and fully conscious of the importance of documentation to the effective prosecution of their work. Failure to meet this important need in the past has been due partly to a general neglect or disregard of its values and partly to a shortage of instructional staff adequately

prepared in documentation. Future provision of such bibliographic specialists trained to give instruction in subject bibliography might well become a responsibility of the library schools, working in close co-operation with the subject departments of the universities of which they are a part.

The layman.—By definition, the bibliographic needs of the lay public have been excluded from the area of service of documentation and reserved for that larger sphere of activity here denominated "bibliographic organization." Nevertheless, it is relevant to emphasize that, if a popular climate of opinion favorable to the acceptance of new developments in science and technology and affirmatively disposed toward the use of public funds for the support of scientific inquiry and research is to be encouraged, the public must be kept informed of the importance of such scientific developments through popularizations that will interpret the social utility of science in lay terms. This is particularly important if government agencies continue to engage more and more in research and technologic experimentation and if government resources are to be increasingly used to finance private investigation. Popularization of the findings of research, in both the physical and the social sciences, thus takes its proper place as an important contribution to the entire democratic process.

For the writer of "popularizations" the bibliographic essay is the most useful bibliographic service, yet it is also frequently the most inaccessible. Because it is a synthesis designed primarily to give the individual a survey of significant developments in a particular field rather than a guide to specific citations, librarians do not recognize the bibliographic essay as a special form and do not usu-

ally indicate it as such; hence it is in constant danger of being lost in the mass of journal articles which are customarily indexed by subject according to the principle of specific entry. This bibliographic problem for the popularizer is further complicated by the fact that the bibliographic essay is not a primary, but a secondary, form of bibliographic organization. It is the capstone of the pyramid of bibliographic organization, which cannot be set in place until an adequate supporting structure of prerequisite bibliographic services has been firmly erected.

TYPES OF AGENCIES

Historically, libraries antedated the development of documentation services or even the publication of bibliographic tools. Ancient, medieval, and even relatively modern libraries were vast storehouses of accumulated records with the most crude and meager of bibliographic devices to reveal the wealth of their resources. However, differentiation among libraries according to the groups they served developed early and in the nineteenth century had attained a relatively advanced stage. This very differentiation of function was in itself a form of bibliographic service, a kind of bibliographic specialization that was a crude response to the bibliographic requirements of diversified groups of interests. But it had the unfortunate effect of scattering library resources among a wide variety of library types. Hence arose our contemporary motley pattern of documentation, grown to elephantine bulk, without plan, organization, or integration—a chaos in which vast and important areas of bibliographic activity are neglected, institutional competition abounds, the cross-fertilization of subject disciplines is

ignored, and economic and social waste is rampant.

The second major approach to the problem of documentation, then, may well be made through a consideration of certain of these types of library agencies which service our present system of documentation.

Large research libraries.—Research libraries naturally emerged from the book collections which were assembled to support the work of the universities. This was a logical and spontaneous development because, for centuries, the universities themselves were the most important agency for the promotion of research and inquiry. But in part it was also a consequence of the growth of the book collection. Relatively small libraries are adequate to most nonresearch needs, but, as libraries grew in size and the extent of their book resources tended to exceed the needs of more "popular" book use, certain public libraries began to attract the patronage of those making special investigations and hence, almost without conscious choice, began to take on the characteristics and responsibilities of documentation agencies supporting the non-academic, as well as the academic, research program. Thus did such public libraries as those of New York, Boston, and Cleveland grow to the stature of research libraries. So also did the Library of Congress, shortly after the turn of the century, come to be regarded not only as a great national bibliographic center for the benefit of the government but as an engine of scholarship in a wide variety of fields. Even in this broad and often undefined area, specialization began to appear, for the academic libraries, which attracted their clientele largely from their own academic communities, soon began to adjust their acquisition policies to the specific pattern of the parent-

institution. Thus, though the library of the University of Chicago and that of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology are both important research collections, the character of their respective holdings is remarkably dissimilar. This trend toward specialization was further intensified by the establishment of independent research libraries, such as the Huntington, Folger, John Crerar, and Newberry, which often began from private, personal collections of a single individual, in which bibliographic function was sharply and very specifically defined. Such definition is not contingent upon the needs of a parent-institution, since none exists, but is largely fortuitous, resulting from the nature of the initial collection, the terms of a bequest, and the needs of its clientele as envisaged by the administrative staff.

Storage libraries.—The rapid growth of the collections of research libraries has begun to necessitate a second important step in the documentation of research, the establishment of the centralized co-operative storage library. The first such agency was established in 1941, in the environs of Cambridge, Massachusetts, as the New England Deposit Library, though a proposal for such an undertaking had been made many years before by President Charles W. Eliot of Harvard, following an earlier suggestion for storage facilities made by the Harvard librarian, William Coolidge Lane.⁷ Today the most conspicuous example is the founding of the Midwest Inter-Library Center in Chicago (MILC), which will draw its materials from more than a dozen co-operating institutions. Originally, these deposit libraries were little more than warehouses for the storage of infrequently consulted materials for re-

⁷ Francis X. Doherty, "The New England Deposit Library," *Library Quarterly*, XVIII, 245-54.

search, but special bibliographic techniques for their particular servicing problems are being considered, as well as plans for the development of their own acquisition policies and programs. It is not inconceivable that, in time, they may become true documentation centers, equipped with many kinds of special bibliographic apparatus designed to meet their specialized requirements, i.e., coordinating agencies that will do much to eliminate duplication and waste, direct attention to neglected areas, and discourage institutional rivalry.⁸

Special libraries.—Special libraries have often been regarded as an American invention, if not specifically the brain child of John Cotton Dana. Actually, however, comparable agencies of documentation have flourished in England and on the Continent as information bureaus, documentation centers, and the like. Characteristically, they are working collections, supported by the purest type of documentation service, for a numerically small group of specialists who frequently have potentially very wide interests. The special library can operate most efficiently if its collection of primary materials is kept to a minimum, while it is free to draw upon the resources of larger collections for additional needs. Basic to its working collection are the bibliographic services of those fields potentially relevant to its own clientele. Obviously, it must be staffed by personnel trained in the use of these tools and capable of manipulating them intelligently for the procuring of additional sources of information through inter-library loan, reprint, photostat, or microfilm, as dictated by need. One scarcely need labor the point that substantive

training in the fields of specialization is as essential to adequate staff performance as competence in the skills of documentation.

Such libraries, particularly those affiliated with the major industries, are increasingly being called upon to maintain and service, as part of their collections, the confidential research reports produced by the parent-organization. Such reports, because they customarily record patentable information or data which, for other reasons, must be kept securely within the official family of the organization, constitute a real barrier in the flow of communication within the system of documentation. Under our present economy of private enterprise, one can scarcely criticize an industrial corporation for wishing to keep to itself the results of its own research which give it an advantage over its competitors; at the same time, such restrictions on freedom of communication should be recognized as being potentially a grave social problem and one of the social costs that must be paid if we are to maintain our adherence to "free competition."

The more ambitious special libraries, such as the Army Medical Library and the library of the United States Department of Agriculture, not only attempt to assemble definitive collections in their respective fields, the collection to be serviced by a highly qualified staff, but they frequently assume responsibility for the publication of bibliographic guides to the literature of their particular subject areas. Such a combination of an extensive collection, trained personnel, and an integrated bibliographic service represents the best possible allocation of responsibility in subject bibliography—our nearest approach to the documentation ideal. Such agencies, however, should always be publicly owned, responsive to

⁸ See Ernest Cadman Colwell, "Cooperation or Suffocation," *College and Research Libraries*, X (July, 1949), 195-98, 207.

social needs, and accessible to all potential users on a free or "at-cost" basis. Adequate bibliographic planning should look forward to the expansion of such meritorious undertakings into many more subject fields and at state and regional as well as national levels. The regional agencies, perhaps, might well be organized as branches of the national service.

Bibliographic centers.—The bibliographic center emerged as an adjunct of the municipal, state, or regional union catalogs, which had their period of greatest expansion during the years when the Works Progress Administration was seeking outlets for public expenditure in which labor costs were relatively high in relation to total overhead. As mere union catalogs, arranged alphabetically by author as finding tools only, without regard to subject analysis, they were aids to physical rather than to content accessibility. But in certain instances, notably Philadelphia, Denver, and Seattle, a wide variety of special services in documentation were added to the simple one of locating materials. Though there may be real danger in the unco-ordinated multiplication of union lists and comparable attenuated bibliographic services, especially at the local level, one can scarcely deny that a limited number of well-planned and judiciously distributed bibliographic centers could greatly improve existing resources in documentation. Furthermore, the fact that the withdrawal of government subsidy has brought financial crises to many of these centers again substantiates the contention that documentation is basically a social responsibility, the costs of which should be met from public funds, the planning for which should be on a national scale, and the services of which should be available to all.

Other (noninstitutional) instruments of documentation.—The noninstitutional instruments of documentation include a wide and completely disorganized array of published bibliographic materials. Their excellence varies greatly from field to field and from sponsoring agency to sponsoring agency. They may evince the high standard of scholarship of *Chemical Abstracts*, *Psychological Abstracts*, or *Population Index*. They may be the result of the initiative of a professional association, a learned society, an educational institution, or an overtly commercial enterprise. They may exist as comprehensive independent services, bibliographic addenda to professional journals issued at stipulated or more or less regular intervals, bibliographic essays and reviews of work in progress published at completely irregular and often idiosyncratic time periods. Of all the forms of documentation, these are the most chaotic and least integrated and stand in greatest need of study and research before co-ordination and planning are possible. Finally, even the best and most scholarly of these instruments of documentation largely ignore the problem of the location of the materials of which they treat, a limitation which in itself results in a truncated bibliographic service. This assertion is not intended to imply that such services should combine both subject and physical accessibility, for it may well be that the two should be kept largely separate; but, at least, the problem should be recognized and the limitations which existing policies dictate fully understood.

INTERNAL ARRANGEMENT

Though the internal arrangements (organization) of documentation services are the very key to their success, the fragmentary and chaotic growth of the

existing system of documentation, if it has not actually discouraged a solution to this problem, has at least not contributed to its solution. To be sure, there have been repeated attempts to standardize the form of bibliographical entry, and there are many who would gladly promote a general acceptance of the U.D.C.; nevertheless, anyone who has ever tried to cumulate the citations of a single service or interfile the entries of even a limited number of different services must realize how far we are from standardization even in those limited areas where general agreement may be relatively easy to achieve. There is no virtue in uniformity for the sake of uniformity, and, admittedly, varying types of materials and varying subject approaches necessitate corresponding variations in organization and treatment. Yet the possibility of multiple bibliographic services designed to meet differing needs of various groups, but emanating from a single centralized source, is certainly the most economical and effective way of achieving adequate bibliographic coverage.

At the present time the profession lacks an appropriate tool or technique for the effective internal arrangement of existing or future documentation services. There is no method for bringing under control the growing mass of documentation which must be properly channeled if waste and inefficiency in scholarship are to be avoided. But it is at least a hopeful sign that interest in classification and other problems relevant to internal arrangement is on the increase and that new mechanical and electronic devices, which depend for their success upon the effectiveness of the classification systems they employ, are near at hand. The problems, then, of internal arrangement, or classification, are the ones to which we

must address ourselves—by the thorough investigation of the approaches to documentation, the manner in which scholars arrive at the documentary sources they need, the uses they make of the materials they find, and the sources of failure in the existing system of scholarly communication. Specifically, this means a better understanding of the thought unit and its use in scholarly activity, of the extent to which organized bibliography brings the arrangement of its materials into juxtaposition with the thought unit, and of the relation between the thought unit and the graphic unit with the goal of making the two essentially one. By the "thought unit" is meant a concept or constellation of concepts meaningful to the scholar-as-user; the "graphic unit" is its counterpart in graphic form. The concept "tree" may be resolved, for example, into either its properties as lumber for the forester or its horticultural characteristics for the landscape architect. Each such resolution of the essence "tree" is a thought unit, and the task of documentation is the effective matching of such concepts to their appropriate expressions in literature (whether such an expression be the current market price per board-foot of white pine, f.o.b. Duluth, or the acid-soil requirements of mountain laurel). It is the degree to which this matching process approaches coincidence of thought unit with graphic unit that determines the effectiveness of the organization of the documentation service, whether that organization be applied to a shelf of books, a card catalog, a printed bibliography, a sequence of photographic facsimiles on microfilm, or an electronic sorter stocked with the data itself.

In conclusion, documentation lies at the very heart of librarianship, and the primary responsibility of the librarian is

to make of himself an expert in bibliographic organization. He is not a "keeper" of the records of the human adventure against the ravages of time; nor is he the presiding officer of a "people's university." Certainly, he is not an executive who orders the professional lives of subordinates for the pure joy of practicing administrative theory. Rather, he is a bibliographer in the widest and wisest

possible sense, a practitioner of bibliographic organization. Let librarians, then, apply themselves to the problems of bibliographic organization, become once more the acknowledged leaders in the largely uncharted world of subject bibliography, and, in the stern discipline of documentation, not only achieve a new professional self-respect but rediscover their true purpose in society.

VARIATIONS IN LIBRARY CHARACTERISTICS IN THE STATE OF WASHINGTON¹

CHARLES E. BOWERMAN

DURING the early stages of the public library program in the United States, emphasis was laid on expanding the areas over which library service was available. More recently, emphasis has been turning from extent of coverage to adequacy of service, although one-fourth of our population still live in unserved areas. Studies by the American Library Association and by the Public Library Inquiry indicate that increased adequacy of service, as well as more extended coverage of service, depends upon the establishment of larger units of library administration. One of the goals of the large library unit is to reduce the variation in service adequacy between the large-city library and the small-town library and to come as close as possible to giving all citizens the opportunities of the largest city library.

As one case study of present variations in library characteristics, we have made an analysis of some of the library statistics of the state of Washington. The data used in this study were collected by the Washington State Library and cover only publicly supported libraries for 1948, excluding "club libraries" and school libraries. Since the data were gathered for the purpose of the regular annual report rather than for analysis of library characteristics, we cannot answer many of the questions that we

should like to ask. However, we can get an indication of the kinds of variation which exist and can draw a number of inferences from such analysis.

In 1948 there were one hundred and seventeen public libraries in the state, serving areas which included 87.8 per cent of the total state population. Thus only 12.2 per cent, or one in eight, did not have library service available. Fourteen of the thirty-nine counties had county libraries serving the rural population. Since all the larger cities and most of the smaller cities support a library, the vast majority of the unserved population lived in the rural sections of the counties which did not have a county library.² In describing the extent of library service in the state, however, we need to go beyond mere numbers of libraries and percentage of population living in the areas served. Probably the single best index of adequacy of service is the size of the library, as defined by the amount of income which the library receives. Not only is this index readily available, but it is closely related to size of staff, degree of staff specialization, size and spread of reading collection, adequacy of reference collection, and other conditions which we associate with the ability of the library to provide optimum service.

Table 1 shows the distribution of the

¹ The author is indebted to Mrs. Carma R. Zimmerman, Washington state librarian, for making the data for this study available and to members of her staff for assistance in tabulation.

² During the latter part of 1948 intercounty rural service was initiated in three more counties, making a total of seventeen. They are not included in this analysis, since they were not in operation throughout the year and therefore comparable statistics were not available.

one hundred and seventeen libraries in Washington by size, as measured by 1948 income, and the percentage of population served by libraries of each size. All the fourteen county libraries received over \$25,000.00. One received more than \$100,000.00, five between \$50,000.00 and

Another revealing picture of library variations is shown by the differences in the way operating expenditures are divided. Table 2 shows the variation, in percentages, of 1948 operating expenditures appropriated for salaries, for books, binding, and periodicals, and for main-

TABLE 1
DISTRIBUTION OF PUBLIC LIBRARIES BY SIZE

TOTAL INCOME 1948	NUMBER OF LIBRARIES			PER CENT OF LIBRARIES	CUMULATIVE POPULATION SERVED*			
	City	County	Total		Per Cent of Libraries	Number	Per Cent	Cumulative Per Cent
\$100,000 and over.....	3	1	4	3.4	3.4	922,106	43.2	43.2
50-\$100,000.....	2	5	7	6.0	9.4	321,378	15.0	58.2
25- 50,000.....	6	8	14	12.0	21.4	327,096	15.3	73.5
10- 25,000.....	10	10	8.5	29.9	107,530	5.0	78.5
5- 10,000.....	13	13	11.1	41.0	77,248	3.6	82.1
2,500- 5,000.....	14	14	12.0	53.0	44,797	2.1	84.2
1,000- 2,500.....	24	24	20.5	73.5	46,725	2.2	86.4
500- 1,000.....	12	12	10.3	83.8	15,772	0.7	87.1
Less than 500.....	19	19	16.2	100.0	15,263	0.7	87.8
Population without li- braries.....	261,857	12.2	100.0
Total.....	103	14	117	100.0	2,139,772	100.0

* Population figures based on estimate used in annual report of Washington State Library.

\$100,000.00, and the other eight between \$25,000.00 and \$50,000.00. At the top of the distribution of all libraries in the state are four libraries with over \$100,000.00 income, serving 43.2 per cent of the population, while at the bottom are the nineteen smallest libraries, serving less than 1 per cent. Looking at the cumulative percentage distributions, we see that the largest 9.4 per cent of libraries serve 58.2 per cent of the population and that the top 30 per cent of libraries serve 78.5 per cent of the population, leaving less than 10 per cent of the population served by the smallest 70 per cent of libraries. It is apparent from these figures that we are a long way from having "equal opportunity for all," if we admit that quality of library service is correlated with size.

tenance. County and city libraries are kept separate, since they show some interesting differences. The largest county library shows an expenditure distribution almost identical with that of the three largest city libraries, but, since it is a single case, we cannot attach much significance to the similarity. The other two income groups of county libraries, however, differ considerably from city libraries of the same size. The county libraries spend a much smaller proportion for salaries, a slightly larger proportion for reading material, and a considerably larger proportion for maintenance, owing principally to their use of mobile equipment.

Comparing city libraries of different sizes, we find that, as the size of the library increases, the percentage spent for

salaries increases while the percentage spent for reading material decreases. Since 17 per cent of \$100,000.00 will buy much more reading material than 50 per cent of \$1,000.00, we get an indication of one kind of efficiency that comes with size. The large income base allows for a

and experienced personnel and allow for a degree of specialization which makes for greater work efficiency and increased personal service for the public. As for maintenance expenditures, we find that the proportion spent by libraries of different sizes is fairly constant, with the ex-

TABLE 2

AVERAGE PERCENTAGE OF OPERATING EXPENDITURES SPENT FOR SALARIES, BOOKS, BINDING, AND PERIODICALS, AND MAINTENANCE, BY SIZE OF LIBRARY

TOTAL INCOME 1948	NO. OF LIBRARIES REPORTING	AVERAGE PERCENTAGE OF OPERATING EXPENDITURES FOR:		
		Salaries	Books, Bind- ing, and Periodicals	Maintenance
<i>County libraries:</i>				
\$100,000 and over.....	1	62.0	18.0	20.0
50-\$100,000.....	5	44.4	25.8	29.8
25- 50,000.....	8	49.4	22.5	28.1
<i>City libraries:</i>				
\$100,000 and over.....	3	63.3	17.0	19.7
50-\$100,000.....	2	61.0	20.0	19.0
25- 50,000.....	6	58.5	22.0	19.5
10- 25,000.....	10	56.6	20.6	22.8
5- 10,000.....	13	54.8	22.7	22.5
2,500- 5,000.....	14	47.9	31.5	20.6
1,000- 2,500.....	24	51.8	31.5	16.7
500- 1,000.....	12	40.7	51.2	8.1
Less than 500.....	15	44.6	43.3	12.1

wider spread of titles, since a library of \$100,000.00 should be able to buy most of the important books published in any one year, with sufficient duplication of popular titles to take care of reasonable demands. At the same time, it can avoid the degree of duplication which would be required by a number of small independent units serving the same population. Therefore, the large library does not use so large a percentage of its income for a relatively complete reading collection as the small library does for a more meager collection, and, consequently, proportionately more is available for salaries with which to hire more highly trained

ception of the libraries under \$2,500.00. The lower percentage spent for maintenance by these small units can probably be accounted for by the fact that they are open few hours per week, that janitorial work is often performed by the part-time librarian or her assistant, and that space is frequently provided rent-free.

Another indication of variations in service is given by the average number of hours per week that libraries of different sizes are open for reading and circulation. As we would expect, there is a direct relationship between size of library and number of hours open (see Table 3). The

three city libraries over \$100,000.00 average 72.4 hours per week, making their service almost constantly available. There is a sharp drop even for the \$50,000.00-\$100,000.00 group, which averages 63 hours per week, while those in the \$5,000.00-\$10,000.00 class are open an average of only 38.2 hours per week. The most severe limitations are

TABLE 3
AVERAGE NUMBER OF HOURS PER
WEEK OPEN FOR CIRCULATION
BY SIZE OF LIBRARY

Total Income 1948	No. Re- porting*	Average No. of Hours Open per Week
\$100,000 and over...	3	72.4
50-\$100,000...	2	63.0
25-50,000...	6	65.5
10-25,000...	10	54.0
5-10,000...	13	38.2
2,500-5,000...	14	24.6
1,000-2,500...	24	18.3
500-1,000...	12	7.3
Less than 500.....	15	5.7

* County libraries not included, since eight of them do not circulate at headquarters. The six which did circulate at headquarters averaged 47 hours per week open.

felt by the smallest units, with less than \$1,000.00. These are open to the public an average of less than 10 hours per week. These figures explain part of the differences in proportional expenditures for staff found in Table 2. The larger libraries are able to use a greater proportion of their income for sufficient staff to provide the service of library availability. As size of library decreases, there is a greater demand for staff time at the expense of providing a minimum of the basic commodity, reading material. Although the number of hours that a library is open is only one of the ways in which library service is expressed, it gives us another example of how efficiency growing out of increased size allows for an increase in amount of service provided.

Libraries annually report the number

of persons registered for library service and frequently make a further breakdown by adult and juvenile registrants. Most libraries have a three-year registration period, but a few have longer periods, and many others have not revised their files recently to discard the unrenewed registrations. Furthermore, some libraries include in their figures registration cards for people living outside their political boundary, thereby making their registration slightly inaccurate in relation to population figures. If these inaccuracies were proportionate in all libraries, they would not affect our comparative results, but we have no way of knowing that such is the case. Consequently, the results of the registration analysis may not be entirely reliable.

County libraries do not report as large a percentage of their potential clientele registered as do city libraries of the same size. The difference is so large (about 50 per cent greater for city libraries) that it cannot be attributed entirely to differences in methods of collecting the basic data. The difference may be due to the more recent establishment of county library services, so that many potential patrons have not grown accustomed to its use. Among city libraries there is considerable variation in the percentage of population reported registered. This percentage increases gradually from 29.4 for libraries with over \$100,000.00 annual income to 46.8 for those with \$2,500.00-\$5,000.00 and then decreases to 25.5 for libraries with incomes under \$500.00 per year. Furthermore, the libraries under \$10,000.00 report a larger percentage of children registered than do larger libraries. Libraries spending over \$10,000.00 reported an average of 24.5 per cent for juvenile registration, while those spending less than \$10,000.00 averaged 33.1 per cent. This might be due partly to dif-

ferences in age distribution of the population and partly to the fact that the small-town library is easily accessible to a larger number of young people.

The differences just discussed are based solely on registration. The circulation pattern is entirely different. Although the small library may register a larger percentage of the potential library users, Table 4 shows that those who do

likely to make initial contact with potential users but that the amount of use by those reached will be greater for the larger library. Actually, this is what proponents of the integrated regional library have been saying for years, and there is considerable evidence to back it up. On the one hand, there are studies which show a gradation downward in library use as distance from library increases.

TABLE 4
CIRCULATION PER REGISTERED BORROWER FOR CITY LIBRARIES
BY SIZE OF LIBRARY

Total Income 1948	No. of Libraries Reporting	Adult Non- fiction Cir- culation per Registered Borrower	Adult Fiction Cir- culation per Registered Borrower	Total Adult Cir- culation per Registered Borrower	Juvenile Circulation per Juvenile Registered Borrower
\$100,000 and over.....	3	5.3	6.3	11.6	27.2
50-\$100,000.....	2	5.6	7.0	12.6	26.8
25- 50,000.....	6	4.5	6.5	11.0	13.9
10- 25,000.....	10	4.6	9.9	14.5	23.6
5- 10,000.....	9	4.8	6.6	11.4	10.6
2,500- 5,000.....	7	2.0	5.2	7.2	9.9
1,000- 2,500.....	13	2.2	7.5	9.7	8.7
500- 1,000.....	6	0.6	8.8	9.6	9.3
Less than 500.....	4	0.4	7.4	7.8	8.0

register in the larger library make a greater use of its facilities. This is particularly true of juvenile registrants, who average 27.2 withdrawals per year in the three largest city libraries and only 8 per year in the four libraries under \$500.00 which supplied data. None of the four income-size groups under \$5,000.00 averaged as much as 10 withdrawals per juvenile registrant, while three of the four income-size groups over \$10,000.00 averaged more than 20. The same was true to a lesser degree of adult circulation per registered borrower. All income-size groups over \$10,000.00 reported between 11 and 15 withdrawals per registrant, but the average for libraries under \$10,000.00 was between 7 and 11. Consequently, we may state the hypothesis that the small library in the small community is more

On the other hand, the larger library system is able to fill the reading needs of users more adequately and is therefore likely to be used to a greater degree. For example, the analysis of our data shows that the differences in adult circulation per registered borrower between large and small libraries can be almost entirely accounted for by differences in nonfiction circulation. There are no significant differences for adult fiction, but there are very perceptible ones for nonfiction, where the large library has its greatest advantage. Average nonfiction circulation for libraries over \$50,000.00 was 5.4 per adult registrant; for libraries between \$5,000.00 and \$50,000.00 it was between 4.5 and 4.8; for libraries from \$1,000.00 to \$5,000.00 it was 2.1; and for those under \$1,000.00 it was only 0.5. Analysis by

subclasses of nonfiction would undoubtedly show even greater variation.

The distribution of circulation as between adult fiction, adult nonfiction, and children's books for libraries in the different size groups is shown in Table 5. The county library circulates a higher percentage of books to juveniles than do urban libraries of the same size. This percentage is largely at the expense of adult nonfiction circulation, which is considerably lower than that for the city libraries

larger with increased size of library. Libraries over \$100,000.00 circulate 43.1 per cent of their books to children, and libraries between \$50,000.00 and \$100,000.00 are not far behind, with 41.5 per cent, while, at the other extreme, libraries under \$1,000.00 circulate only slightly over 25 per cent to children. The explanation for this difference can be found in the greater attention which the large library can give to its juvenile collection, in number of books made available, in space

TABLE 5
AVERAGE PERCENTAGE CIRCULATION BY TYPE AND SIZE OF LIBRARY

TOTAL INCOME 1948	CITY				COUNTY			
	No. Reporting	Av. Per Cent Adult Nonfiction	Av. Per Cent Adult Fiction	Av. Per Cent Juvenile	No. Reporting	Av. Per Cent Adult Nonfiction	Av. Per Cent Adult Fiction	Av. Per Cent Juvenile
\$100,000 and over	3	23.6	33.3	43.1	1	18.0	32.0	50.0
50-\$100,000	2	26.0	32.5	41.5	5	20.6	25.6	53.8
25-50,000	6	26.5	37.8	35.7	8	16.5	37.0	46.5
10-25,000	10	22.6	40.5	36.9				
5-10,000	12	24.1	42.0	33.9				
2,500-5,000	11	15.8	45.9	38.3				
1,000-2,500	10	13.2	49.2	37.6				
500-1,000	8	5.1	60.3	25.6				
Less than 500	9	10.1	62.0	27.9				

of comparable size. This difference may be due to several factors, including the use of school grounds as bookmobile stops by the county library system, a difference in type of reader interest, and the use of a city library by some rural residents. It is also possible that the bookmobile, in emphasizing mass appeal, cannot provide a sufficient variety of nonfiction titles. We need to know more about the inhibiting effect of having to order a book by title or subject and waiting until the next week to receive it.

In the comparison of type of circulation for urban libraries, two significant differences may be noted. First, the proportion of the total circulation which consists of children's books tends to be

for reading and display, and, perhaps most important, in specialized staff to work with the collection. The larger libraries will have a full-time children's librarian, who can keep up with the latest materials, handle their acquisition and display, and aid young people in the selection of books appropriate to their ages and interests.

The second difference in circulation characteristics has to do with the percentage of circulation which is adult nonfiction. In the three largest library income groups, over 40 per cent of adult circulation is in the nonfiction adult category, the three middle income groups vary from 32 to 38 per cent nonfiction adult circulation, and the libraries under

\$2,500.00 average less than 20 per cent. Once more this suggests the absence of specialization in the smaller library. The small library must concentrate its collection and staff efforts on the class of material which is least expensive and in greatest demand, namely, fiction. The fiction reader is more general in his demands than is the nonfiction reader, who is much more likely to want a particular book on a particular subject. To take care of such needs requires a large and diversified collection, which can be obtained only by the large library.

In analyzing the reports on the percentage of book stock which consisted of adult or juvenile titles, we found no significant differences among libraries in the various size groups. There was a considerable difference, however, between city and county libraries in this respect. Juvenile titles average slightly over one-fourth of the city library collection, whereas almost one-half of the county library collection is in this category. This condition may both reflect and cause the higher percentage of juvenile circulation in the county library.

The final characteristic for which we made comparisons was the average number of newspapers and periodicals received by city libraries of different sizes. Libraries under \$1,000.00 in annual income averaged 4 periodicals and no newspapers, those between \$2,500.00 and \$5,000.00 averaged 2 newspapers and 23 periodicals, and those between \$10,000.00 and \$25,000.00 averaged 9 newspapers and 91 periodicals. Although the number of periodicals and newspapers received increases steadily with size of library, as we would naturally expect, it is significant that the biggest percentage increase occurs in libraries over \$100,000.00. The two libraries in the \$50,000.00-\$100,000.00 class average 19 and

274 for newspapers and periodicals, respectively, while the three libraries over \$100,000.00 jump to an average of 111 and 1,134. Even with the largest single library omitted, the other two average 68 newspapers and 280 periodicals. Although this comparison is based on an extremely small number of cases, and periodicals and newspapers represent only a part of the reference collection, it indicates that the adequacy of the reference collection increases very markedly with increase in size of library, particularly at the upper end of the distribution.

In summary, we have examined a few of the variations which exist among libraries in the state of Washington and have shown that size of library as defined by amount of income is an important factor in producing such variations. We found that with an increase in size of library there is a decrease in percentage of income spent for books and periodicals and an increase in the percentage allotted to salaries. It is necessary for any library, regardless of size, to seek a balance between reading material and staff service, within the limits of its financial ability. This balance varies with size, however, and we might hypothesize a "law of library growth." This phenomenon would merit further study, with particular reference to degree of coverage of potential reading material, satisfaction of marginal reading demands, the amount of duplication of volumes necessitated by an increased population served, and staff efficiency levels.

Size of library was also found to be directly related to the number of hours open to the public for circulation, to the amount of use made of the library by registered borrowers, particularly in the circulation of juvenile and nonfiction material, and to the adequacy of the ref-

erence collection as indicated by newspapers and periodicals received.

The variations between large- and small-unit libraries which we have shown here are for only one state and are only a few of the many variations which probably exist. However, they serve to reinforce the findings of other studies and the opinions of librarians, based on observation of many different units, that we are far from achieving the goal of "equality of library opportunity." These differences deserve much more study than they have received. We should know more about the reasons for differences in type of circulation between county and city libraries. Knowledge of the effect of library size and adequacy on the library-use gradients or the distance people will

travel to the library would be important in view of the growth of the regional library movement and the development of branch systems. It would be crucial to find out whether variations in type of book circulation between large and small libraries are due to differences in reader interest or in book availability. A thorough study of the relative adequacy of branch, station, and bookmobile service would be particularly helpful. It is significant that librarians are increasingly demanding that such questions be answered by research rather than by guess and that the program of library development in the United States be based on a solid foundation of research. Only in this way can librarians know where they are going and how best to get there.

THE AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION. II. FRAGMENTS OF AUTOBIOGRAPHY

WILLIAM WARNER BISHOP

WITH my election to the presidency of the American Library Association, I closed the first part of these reminiscences of the ALA. The annual conference in 1918 was held at Saratoga Springs under most depressing circumstances. No one could have foreseen the actual surrender of Germany in November. I recall that I got the association by resolution to direct the Executive Board to abandon the next annual meeting, if it seemed proper to them. This action of the association will show the uncertainty of the moment better than any statement of mine can do.

There was, as was proper, a military cast to the convention. Uniforms were much in evidence, from the director-general of the ALA War Service to the private in the ranks of the army. Nearly the entire time of the conference was devoted to problems of the War Service. It was borne in upon us that the nation was at war and that the future was very uncertain. At the first meeting of the Executive Board under my presidency, the fact came out that there was disagreement amounting to a quarrel between the War Service—represented by the director, Dr. Putnam—and the Committee of Finance, which had raised the necessary money. Frank P. Hill was the chairman of that committee, and his quarrel with Putnam, the head of the War Service, was bitter and unfortunate. He introduced a resolution at that meeting directing the president to seek the advice of counsel concerning the legality of the

proceedings under which a large sum of money had been raised and spent. It was a wholly innocent-appearing resolution which did not condemn a thing, but it had dynamite in it. I at once took it to Putnam, who flushed as he read it but, with admirable self-control, remarked that no one could object to its terms. I went back to Ann Arbor determined that, as far as lay within me, I would do nothing to interrupt the excellent war service we were getting.

Practically the whole of my spare time in the month of July was devoted to studying and preparing the case to be submitted to counsel. I secured by mail an agreement on the part of Hill and Putnam to stand on the facts which I had enumerated. Then came the question of whom to ask for advice. On the recommendation of President Hutchins—who had been dean of the Law School at Michigan—I sought the advice of Harry Buckley, a lawyer in Detroit, most distinguished for learning and ability, who had been my classmate and was for one term a regent of the University of Michigan. Buckley promptly accepted and gave his opinion that no illegal acts had been committed; but he strongly urged me to secure the adoption by the ALA of certain measures which would authorize the officers to raise and spend money for purposes beyond those expressly designated by the constitution of the ALA. He also suggested some changes in accounting. His opinion disposed of the chief question. But it did

not satisfy Hill, whom I managed to keep in a minority of one on the Executive Board during the rest of my term as president. Needless to say, he was not my friend any longer.

Putnam had insisted that I go to Washington to familiarize myself with the workings of the War Service. As I was due at Albany to assist in the celebration of the hundredth anniversary of the New York State Library, I stopped there on the way. On this occasion I heard Melvil Dewey deliver an address which showed that he was thirty years behind the times in his knowledge of what public libraries could and should do. At Washington I spent some days in early July becoming familiar with the details of the War Service, which was housed in the Library of Congress. Later I took up my residence at the Cosmos Club and settled down as one of Putnam's division chiefs, but mainly I was ready with advice and with decisions as president of the ALA, which was the real purpose of my being in Washington. I was put in charge of service to the Student Army Training Corps, an organization which operated in most of the colleges of the country, and there gained a firsthand acquaintance with the problems of college libraries, which was to stand me in good stead later when I was concerned with them as chairman of various "advisory groups" of the Carnegie Corporation.

We had offices in the old Map Division of the Library of Congress. It was crowded with desks, and eighteen typewriters were being operated at the same time. My desk was next to that occupied by Raney, then of Johns Hopkins. One Sunday, certain cablegrams came for Raney, who was in Baltimore, from Stevenson, then in charge of the Paris office of the ALA. Stevenson wanted to

know why his cablegrams had not been answered. Milam, Utey, and I consulted as to what to do. We finally broke into Raney's desk and found half-a-dozen cablegrams from Stevenson which had not been answered. Milam took charge of them and replied to them. But Raney associated me with the deed and never forgave me.

The end of the war came suddenly in November. I shall never forget the day. I was journeying from Washington to Albany to lecture at the New York State Library School, and the mob that filled the streets in New York made it troublesome to get with a suitcase full of slides from the Pennsylvania Station to the Grand Central Station. At Albany I had to carry my suitcase up the hill to the Ten Eyck Hotel. No taxicabs were running, but the streets were filled by people in every variety of automobiles, sounding their horns like mad and prevented only by their number from driving like mad.

I have always been glad that the librarians, like the doctors and nurses, offered their professional services in the war. It was an inspiring effort. Dr. Putnam, the librarian of Congress, headed the service with his usual clear vision and executive ability. Carl Milam came to the fore as his principal assistant, and most of the librarians of distinction in the country were at some time or other connected with the War Service. Samuel Ranck, of Grand Rapids, was in charge of the hospital library at St. Nazaire, and this was typical. Meyer, of the Library of Congress, was librarian at Camp Meade, near Baltimore. Most of my personal friends were in the service, and I was out of it only because, as president of the ALA, I was responsible for the whole.

One of my first tasks was to select a

meeting place for the annual conference of 1919. Utley, secretary of the ALA, and I spent a lot of time on this. We paid a visit in the dead of winter to Chautauqua, which had been suggested. I shall never forget how the familiar scenes looked in winter. Finally, we picked Asbury Park on the shore of New Jersey as the best available place. It was convenient both to Washington and to New York, and, though the association had met there in 1916, its advantages were conspicuous. A good deal of thought went into planning the program of the annual conference, and an arrangement for the business meetings insured the legality of the War Service expenditure. I recall that I got J. I. Wyer, of the New York State Library at Albany, to make certain motions which took care of the legal features.

One of my most pleasing recollections of the conference was that I took Mrs. Bishop along. She went with me to many subsequent conferences and helped me greatly by her social charm and competence. The wife of the president always goes to the annual conference. This is traditional in the ALA, and there have been too few women presidents to break the tradition. Another reason for remembering the Asbury Park conference is that there I first met Fred Keppel, who was then Third Assistant Secretary of War, in charge of all the work that we were privileged to do for the army. Characteristically, he went for a swim in the ocean when he found there was time for it. We were to be thrown together a great deal later, when he was president of the Carnegie Corporation, but this first meeting showed him to be a very human sort of man. He came to Ann Arbor as the commencement speaker, and I succeeded in adjusting his schedule

to permit him to address the ALA and yet keep his Ann Arbor appointment.

One episode marred the otherwise smooth working of the conference. At the final business session, just as I was about to hand the gavel to Hadley, of Denver, Miss Maud Malone, of the New York Public Library, arose to speak on unions in libraries. She was not even a member of the ALA (as I discovered later) and should not have been permitted to speak. But she did and made a most uncomfortable scene. I finally turned over the control of the association to Hadley, but only after a half-hour of bitter controversy.

During my term as president I had been greatly impressed with the fact that the ALA had a basic law which was unworkable. For many reasons, into which it is not necessary to go now, the constitution was not workable, at least in any emergency such as the war. So a small group of us began to draft a new constitution. A special committee, consisting of Utley, Hadley, and myself, was appointed on this matter and was instructed to report at the mid-winter meetings in Chicago. Most unfortunately, the proposed new constitution became confused in the minds of members of the association with the so-called "enlarged program," which was advocated by a group of which Hill, Carlton, and Milam were the principal leaders. Our proposal had nothing in common with the "enlarged program"—most of which has since been carried into effect—and a most peculiar situation developed at Chicago. Utley had been ill with influenza and was not strong, Hadley was presiding, and it fell to me to present the new constitution to the association. The audience was hostile. Even the change of a comma and the substitution thereof of a semicolon appeared to the opposi-

tion to have some sinister purpose. I explained and explained, but to no purpose. I have seldom had such an experience as that of presenting to a hostile audience a new constitution designed to give greater freedom to the electorate and the officers. The new constitution was defeated by a decisive vote. Under the rules it had to be presented a second time, and, accordingly, I went through the motions at the Colorado Springs conference, but with a consciousness of the futility of the move. The vote was more conclusive than it had been at Chicago. For a time I was completely discouraged and withdrew from all connection with the ordinary business of the association. But not for long.

When the Newberry trustees elected Utley to the post of librarian, Carl H. Milam was chosen as secretary. He had had a distinguished career in the War Service and, following that, had been librarian of the public library of Birmingham, Alabama. I grew into closer and closer association with him, and I expressed my appreciation in the article I wrote for the *ALA Bulletin* on the occasion of his twenty-fifth anniversary. I have never been a "Milam man," but I have cordially supported him through thick and thin, conscious that he had some faults—who of us does not?—but convinced that his leadership was, on the whole, wise and strong. As a university librarian I have never joined in the criticism that he was too much of a public library man. After all, the great growth and strength of the library movement has been in the public libraries. The association was particularly fortunate to have Milam at its head, for the secretary is necessarily permanent, whereas the presidency changes yearly under our system. Milam had the power, developed by years of experience, of

bringing a deliberative body back to the essential point under discussion, however much they had strayed from it under the impulse of talk. His representation to public officers and to others of library interests has been forcible and effective. Altogether, it was a lucky day for the ALA when he became its secretary.

The association was equally fortunate in the woman who in 1920 became assistant secretary. Miss Sarah C. N. Bogle had been librarian of Juniata College in Pennsylvania. It was as a college librarian that I first met her at Atlantic City during the annual meetings of the Pennsylvania Library Club and the New Jersey Library Association. I was destined to become an intimate friend of hers later, when she was serving as assistant secretary of the ALA in Chicago. During the years following the war she was *directrice* of the École des bibliothécaires in Paris. As such, she exercised a wide influence in European library affairs. For a long time the "American School," as it was affectionately called by its followers, was the only library school on the Continent. But the funds for its support dried up, and the school closed its doors.

Miss Bogle was one of the noblest women I have ever met. As Keppel said to me after her death, she was not only a great personality, she was a personage. I am glad that she found rest and comfort in my home in Ann Arbor. She came time after time to spend a few days with us. While she was at the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh, I brought her to Ann Arbor two summers to teach children's work as a special lecturer in the Department of Library Methods. As assistant secretary of the ALA, she was especially successful in obtaining grants for library purposes from the great

foundations. She impressed people with the dignity and general resourcefulness of libraries because she was herself dignified and resourceful. Altogether, I am a better man for having known her. It goes against the grain to write about her coldly and impersonally. She was such a vivid personality that she seems to be still present and alive.

The main work of the ALA was done by committees or, as the more important of them are now called, boards. I have had my full share of committee work. The first on which I rendered service beyond the ordinary working committee membership was the Commission on Libraries and Adult Education, headed by Jennings, of the Seattle Public Library. This was a remarkable body. I represented the university libraries on the commission, and we did some good work at a critical time. This commission was appointed after the war, when the libraries were beginning to get into their stride after the great impulse given them by participation in the Library War Service. On its behalf I visited various agencies in England and gathered a lot of information on the Workers Educational Association and on the part that libraries could and did play in adult education. I have retained an interest in library extension to this day and feel sure that our work was worth while. We even published a periodical, and as a member I contributed various articles. Friendship with Dr. Cranage, recently Dean of Norfolk, was one result of the work. He had long been the head of the adult education work of Cambridge University. I came to know my American colleagues on the commission very well. Not only Jennings but Charles E. Rush, then of the Indianapolis Public Library, and Miss Linda A. Eastman, of Cleveland, stand out in my memory as conspicuous

examples of what adult education can do for librarians.

In 1926, at the Atlantic City conference, Putnam resigned from the chairmanship of the International Relations Committee, and I succeeded him. To this committee I devoted myself for years as my chief work for the ALA. It was a congenial task. As representative of the ALA on the International Library Committee, I was responsible for much of the work of that body, and the two assignments dovetailed into each other nicely. As I recall my years of work on that committee, I am led to remark that, no matter what the membership of the group (and we had some very strong people as members), the committee followed my lead without question. I went off the committee in 1936, following the rule adopted by the executive board that no man should serve more than five years as chairman. I think the rule is good—no man *should* serve more than five years—but it worked hardship in my case. I left the International Relations Committee with real regret.

But I was not long in picking up other interests. For a number of years Dr. Keppel, president of the Carnegie Corporation, had been familiar with my work. In 1929 he asked me to come to New York to confer with him on a new project of the corporation. He had been increasingly concerned with college libraries, and he had brought his trustees to see that they offered a considerable field for development. Together we discussed the people who later comprised the first "advisory group" on college libraries. They were a notable group who had shown interest in the college library problem. It was a far cry from my concern with international relations but not foreign to my interests. We found that we had no yardstick by which to measure

college libraries. As a result, we published at the expense of the corporation a *List of Books for College Libraries*, which Charles B. Shaw, of Swarthmore, undertook to edit. That was an altogether new enterprise. We had no guide and no competitors. The number of titles in each section was not based on any plan other than the suggestions of specialists, and the list contained many titles which had gone out of print and could not be bought. Thus the section on zoölogy was twice as large as the one on botany. But, taken by and large, the Shaw *List* was a decided success. Not only did it give a secure basis for judging the book collections of college libraries, but it rapidly became a buying guide, which it was not intended to be. I still recall the enormous differences among libraries in their possession of the books listed, as revealed by checking. One college had only 158—there were some 14,000 titles in the *List*—and another showed 95 per cent of the books. The advisory group published *College Library Standards* and recommended to the trustees of the corporation nearly \$2,000,000.00 in grants. Four grants amounting to \$600,000.00 were for endowments, but the rest were for books.

It seemed unwise merely to grant money and permit the colleges to incur the expense of spending it. Accordingly, the corporation opened offices in two rooms provided by the University of Michigan Library, and Hugh Gourlay was engaged to devise machinery for ordering the books. This he did by an ingenious system of credits available in the fiscal year of the corporation. The colleges, with a few exceptions, handled no money but had complete freedom of choice of books, including those which could be had only in the secondhand market. When we thought that a selection

was unwise—for I devoted half an hour a day or more on occasion to reviewing book orders—we did not refuse to get the book but contented ourselves with expressing a doubt to the college librarian. Most of them canceled their orders at once, but, occasionally, one persisted, and we never refused to order the book in question. We employed this system for as long as the work continued—up to 1942. We got a much better discount from booksellers than the colleges themselves in most cases would have received. When Gourlay went to McMaster University as librarian, he was succeeded by Foster Mohrhardt, of the University of Michigan Library staff, and he, in turn, was followed by Thomas A. Barcus, also of the University of Michigan Library staff.

The work of devising standards and determining grants was not allowed to interfere with my duties to the University of Michigan. The College Library Advisory Group was followed by those on junior colleges, teachers' colleges, and, finally, engineering colleges. We published a *List of Books for Junior Colleges*, for which I had the distribution of titles determined by the advisory group in advance. It took two whole sessions of the group to arrive at the result. On this list the titles were all in print at the time of publication, and it could, in consequence, be used as a buying guide. Experience showed the value of limiting the size of the groups; accordingly, those on teachers' colleges and engineering colleges were smaller. We had trained a number of young men to act as consultants to judge college libraries, and these became very expert. I think the group on engineering colleges had the benefit of as expert advice as it was possible to assemble in the United States and Canada. Whenever a college, knowing it was go-

ing to be inspected, "fixed" matters so that the library would make a good impression, the visitor would detect it at once. Only two or three tried it.

The work of the various advisory groups had the wholesome effect of fixing the attention of the colleges on their libraries. No university libraries—with a few exceptions—were considered by any group. It was distinctly a college operation. My connection with it led to an acquaintance with people concerned with colleges which has been very valuable. And my leader in this work was himself a man of unusual abilities and personal traits. Dr. Frederick Keppel was a man, with all that that expression implies. I have never had more intimate relations with any man, and I never found him wanting. It is not easy to write about him—even after more than ten years he seems still living. With

Robert M. Lester, the secretary of the Carnegie Corporation, an association developed which has led to a deep and sincere friendship.

As I look back on my membership in the ALA—begun in 1896—I am conscious of how much I have gained from that single aspect of my life. Long years of membership in an organization are nothing. Work for it is something beyond merely belonging. The people whom I met in these years, the committee work I was privileged to do, the scores of librarians whom I have known intimately through my membership—all are part of the picture. I am proud to have belonged to a professional body for more than fifty years, but prouder still to have known well men and women of kindred problems and abilities. In short, I like the American Library Association and am proud to belong to it.

THE COVER DESIGN

THE cover design of this issue is a mark of Johann Besicken and Martinus de Amsterdam, printers at Rome.

Besicken was born in Besigheim, a town in Württemberg. As a youth, however, he migrated to Basle and, as early as October 18, 1460, was matriculated at the university there. No record appears to exist of his obtaining a degree, and when, on June 1, 1487, he became by purchase a citizen of Basle, he was described in the records as a printer. He evidently worked as a journeyman for various printers, the chief among them being Martin Flack. For a short time—from about 1482 to 1483—he was in business for himself in Basle. He printed three books, all of ecclesiastical interest.

Besicken's name appears on the public records of Basle until March, 1485. Some time after this date he migrated to Rome, where in 1493 he is known to have been in business in partnership with Sigismund Mayr. About the beginning of the year 1500, Martinus de Amsterdam, another German, took the place of Mayr.

Martinus had been printing at Naples (where he may have known Mayr), first as a foreman for Sixtus Reissinger and later, from about 1485 to 1487, for Francesco Del Tuppo, possibly on a partnership basis. He finally opened a printing office with Johannes Tresser, one of his associates under Del Tuppo. Their sole production, completed on July 17, 1498, was a collection of tracts by Pontanus, a local humanist. Tresser subsequently withdrew from the firm, and Martinus by himself completed an *Officium Beatae Virginis Mariae* on January 27, 1499.

After Martinus moved to Rome and entered into partnership with Besicken, the two print-

ers completed an edition of *Mirabilia Romae* on January 24, 1500, and their press, during the period of their collaboration, became very productive. But in the spring of 1501 Martinus left the firm, and Besicken continued by himself until about 1515.

Besicken's books were ecclesiastical rather than religious—most of them manuals for priests. He also printed some orations and a few sermons. Besides these, he issued, in both Latin and German, guide-books for pilgrims to Rome.

The central portion of the mark here reproduced is a figure of the Virgin holding the Child. Wearing a diadem and carrying a scepter, she is clothed with the sun and has the moon under her feet (cf. Rev. 12:1). Below her feet are eleven rosary beads. The upper portion of the mark represents the Annunciation, with a figure of the Virgin on the left and a crude representation of the Archangel Gabriel on the right. In the middle is a cherub's face between two cornucopias.

The lower portion of the mark is devoted to the prophets of the Incarnation. On the left is Balaam with the label: *Orietur stell[la]m* (Num. 24:17)—"There shall come a star out of Jacob." On the right is Isaiah with his label: *Ec[c]le virgo co[n]cipiet* (Isa. 7:14)—"Behold a virgin shall conceive." Between these two prophets is a branch bearing a *b*, Besicken's initial.

This mark was used with a companion device, which has the figure of the Crucifixion as its central panel and, in its lower compartment, the name of Martinus de Amsterdam.

EDWIN ELLIOTT WILLOUGHBY

FOLGER SHAKESPEARE LIBRARY



THE CONTRIBUTORS TO THIS ISSUE

WILLIAM WARNER BISHOP: for biographical information see the *Library Quarterly*, I (1931), 338; IV (1934), 359; XII (1942), 762; XIV (1944), 339-48; XV (1945), 324-38; XVIII (1948), 1-23, 185-91; XIX (1949), 36-45, 270-84.

CHARLES E. BOWERMAN received his A.B. degree from Denison University (Granville, Ohio) in 1935, and his M.A. and Ph.D. in sociology from the University of Chicago in 1939 and 1948, respectively. He held an instructorship at Syracuse University from 1941 until 1943, when he joined the Office of Price Administration as a statistician. For the next three years, he was a member of the United States Naval Reserve. Since 1946 he has been assistant professor of sociology at the University of Washington.

Among Mr. Bowerman's works are "A Proposed Regional Library Plan for the State of Washington" (Washington State Library, 1950) and "The Concept of Marital Adjustment Areas" ("Research Studies," Vol. XVII [1949], issued by the State College of Washington in mimeographed form). He is currently engaged in research on the measurement and prediction of areas of adjustment in marriage.

SEYMOUR LUBETZKY: for biographical information see the *Library Quarterly*, X (1940), 393-94. Mr. Lubetzky joined the Library of Con-

gress staff early in 1943, when he was appointed technical assistant to the director of the Processing Department. At the end of 1946, when the Catalog Maintenance Division was established, he became chief of this division. Since the end of 1949, he has served also as chief of the Union Catalog Division.

JESSE H. SHERA: for biographical information see the *Library Quarterly*, III (1933), 422, and XV (1945), 76. In 1946 Mr. Shera became assistant director of the University of Chicago Library. Since 1947 he has been assistant professor at the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago.

In the summer of 1950 he was co-chairman of the fifteenth annual conference of the Graduate Library School on the subject of bibliographic organization; in November of the same year he attended the UNESCO (Paris) conferences on world bibliographic services and bibliographic organization in the social sciences. Mr. Shera attended these meetings as an official representative of the Department of State and, for the conference on world bibliography, presented the official report for the United States.

Mr. Shera's *Foundations of the Public Library: The Origins of the Public Library Movement in New England from 1629 to 1855* was published in 1949 by the University of Chicago Press.

REVIEWS

Advice on Establishing a Library. By GABRIEL NAUDÉ, with an Introduction by ARCHER TAYLOR. Berkeley and Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1950. Pp. xiii+110. \$3.00.

More frequently referred to by title than studied or read, Naudé's *Avis pour dresser une bibliothèque* has become a collector's piece rather than a recognized classic in the development of the literature on libraries, and few efforts have been made to weave its general purpose and tenor into the tissue of seventeenth-century thought. Yet it has deserved a better fate, for in its brevity and scope it is something of a masterpiece, fully worthy of the care and artistry devoted to it in this charming edition from the hands of Professor Archer Taylor and his associates.

Far from encouraging mere bibliomania, Naudé proposed to direct a wealthy collector into paths of bibliothecarian righteousness, demonstrating as clearly as he could within the bounds of *politesse* the public and national values that might be possessed by a fine library liberally administered and available to all who could profit by its use. Characteristically, Naudé held that his century was in advance of its predecessors in the quantity and quality of its knowledge and wisdom and concluded that classical precedents for great libraries challenged the seventeenth-century philanthropist to build even finer and more usefully organized collections adapted to the circumstances of modern man and his ways of life and study.

As a great librarian in an age of famous libraries, Naudé gives first place to the books to be collected, their number and the range of their subject matter, the criteria of selection, and the means of procurement, before he turns to the building itself and the method of the catalog. The public to be served in his age was neither large nor exacting. It asked for books in quantity, easily found and adequately classified on a basis of content, for usable catalogs, and for the customary adjuncts of erudition (even to clocks, penknives, sand for blotting, and the cough drops that would counteract the dust mentioned by almost every bookman of the age). Naudé wrote before the rise of the learned periodical

swamped the stacks with rows and rows of little-used but quite indispensable duodecimos and quartos and crowded reference shelves with guides to the location and contents of serials. A library, for him, was a mass of books large and small, each mostly devoted to a single definable topic; what we moderns call the "tools of scholarship" were carried in the scholar's head.

As a result, Naudé in this little book can cover a large field in general terms, while offering practical suggestions for perfectly definite procedures at every important point. Like the contemporary philosopher, the librarian could take all knowledge for his province, admitting with the skeptics that he knew nothing to be true at the same time that he offered the best product of the entire Republic of Letters to the busy pens of his company of readers. Naudé's library was not planned to serve any cause short of the totality of human knowledge and opinion; his dream was that of the Pyrrhonist and universal critic, and he would by no means have shared the view expressed by a modern man of science that all books over twenty-five years old could well be placed in storage remote from the desks of student and scholar alike.

Professor Taylor's edition offers a revised translation (in which John Evelyn, though not slavishly followed, serves as a general guide), as well as a brief but sufficient account of Naudé and several pages of notes identifying citations and clearing up obscurities due to changes of taste and custom. Scholars might ask for more commentary on the many figures of Renaissance and earlier scholarship whose names are sprinkled over these pages, but it is by no means certain that such developments would have enhanced Naudé's arguments or clarified his message. He belongs to an age that was escaping from the thickets of humanistic erudition to the cleared fields of seventeenth-century humanity, and his work is more important for what it has to say in general terms than for its references to innumerable figures who, as represented here, are merely so many typical instances whose context is sufficiently explanatory.

HARCOURT BROWN

Brown University

"The Effects of Mass Media." A Report of the Public Library Inquiry by JOSEPH T. KLAPPER, with a Foreword by PAUL F. LAZARSFELD. New York: Bureau of Applied Social Research, Columbia University, August, 1949. Pp. 183. \$2.50. (Mimeographed.)

This volume grows out of the Public Library Inquiry. Robert D. Leigh, its director, sought from Dr. Klapper memoranda on the current "state of the art" of research into the effects of mass media: their impact in the elevation or degradation of popular taste; their "escapist" function; their possible uses (e.g., the persuasive effectiveness of face-to-face discourse) in inculcating "important civic attitudes." The volume that resulted is a careful, critical, and useful summary of social-psychological writing on these topics, and at points more than a summary.

Certain conclusions as to media effects emerge with reasonable certainty. Popular taste reflects the culture as a whole; so do the media; people read, see, or hear what they want to read, see, or hear; hence, the media have little ascertainable leverage on popular taste. This general observation is both supported and qualified by some findings of Hovland *et al.* for the Army's Research Branch, namely, that orientational films, while ready conveyors of factual information, serve mainly to orient the more basic attitudes of the already predisposed; but also that attitude changes *do* occur, sometimes after a considerable lapse of time. In general, however, an important attitudinal message that will not boomerang can be put across only under conditions of monopoly—but such conditions are again a reflection of the total culture. All this will hardly be news to the readers of the *Library Quarterly*, although the methodological details and occasional puzzling contradictions brought out by Dr. Klapper may be illuminating.

What does this mean in research terms if one looks at the whole bulk of reported studies? Researches that try to isolate communications from the culture as a whole can (if there is enough money) be quite refined; they can expose five hundred to one movie and five hundred to another and compare results for what is called "significance." But this "significance" means merely that there is a statistically valid, measurable difference in results; to explain the results and relate them to media effects in the culture is another story. At that point those researches which Dr. Klapper finds valuable enough to quote repeatedly abandon statistics

for some kind of theoretical postulate in social psychology: either about perception, about learning theory, or, more broadly, about the uses that people make of the media in pursuit of socially given ends. Thus he quotes frequently from Merton's *Mass Persuasion*, which is in my opinion a model of research in this field because of its interplay between a few intensively studied intensive interviews and Merton's sharply critical, but certainly not statistically validated, grasp of what goes on in American society. Yet in speaking of another brilliant study which pursued similar methods—that of Katherine Wolf and Marjorie Fiske on the effect of comic books on children—Dr. Klapper finds it necessary to remark that "the great advantage of such uniquely first-hand information is somewhat offset by the comparatively small sample which the investigators were able to study by such time-consuming methods." He would, I think, have served research better had he emphasized that it is only the "time-consuming methods"—and these, at this point, almost inevitably imply small samples—which promise any progress out of the somewhat inconclusive and often unsuggestive nature of most work in this field. It is noteworthy in this connection how often Dr. Klapper refers, and, in this reviewer's opinion, rightly so, to the Lazarsfeld and Merton paper on "Mass Communication, Popular Taste, and Organized Social Action"—a work not based directly on research at all but full of enough ideas to keep research going for quite some time.

For, indeed, it is only within a context of ideas that Dr. Leigh's questions to Dr. Klapper can be understood. Why are we so interested in the mass media—more interested, as a student pointed out in a recent seminar on popular culture, than in gambling, drinking, card-playing, and other more or less organized leisure pursuits which also affect civic attitudes? Perhaps it is simply because, as this student argued, we are intellectuals and can comfortably handle, as well as count, the media. But perhaps there is more to it than that; Dr. Leigh's questions take us *back* to the days when literacy was looked at hopefully, as an unmixed blessing, by all but the conservative classes, and *forward* in the not-yet-extinguished hope that by some media gadget our disappointment with the immediate consequences of literacy and media permeability can be assuaged and the mass public roused to elevated tastes and proper civic interests.

It is, then, no accident that Dr. Klapper goes

beyond summary and states his own positions on this very set of implicit issues. Thus he attacks the proposition that the media lead to civic apathy by encouraging "escape." In relieving the media of their scapegoat role, he is, I believe, on thoroughly sound ground. But Dr. Klapper goes on, in a later section, to suggest means by which the media can combat apathy, and to assume, in line with one of Dr. Leigh's questions, that this is desirable. But is this really so? Is not apathy the only available defense that most people have against the ideas which the media try to sell? If, as Dr. Klapper maintains, the media on the whole reinforce the status quo (not, be it noted, by direct intention but in a more complex and roundabout way), should we not encourage apathy? Or, rather, should we not assume that there are different kinds of apathy, some of which, in a given social setting, may be more "active" and productive than they seem? Dr. Klapper does not explore these ambiguities, though they are raised by his treatment of escape and though his whole discussion shows his full awareness of the paradoxes that haunt any examination of the relations among media, people, and culture.

To be sure, Dr. Klapper did not set himself so grandiose a topic in responding to Dr. Leigh, but, rather, some very modest ones. Nevertheless, it is striking that, in carrying out his bibliographic purpose, he has not included any references (save for two fine pieces by James T. Farrell) to the critique of the media in a very wide context, at once aesthetic and social, that has been carried on in recent years in some of the "little" magazines: in the *Kenyon Review*, the *Partisan Review*, *Politics, Commentary*, *View*. While many of the concepts and even much of the animus that have guided and motivated these writers do turn up in works that are cited—notably in Adorno, Herta Herzog, Lazarsfeld (including the thoughtful Preface to the volume under review), Lowenthal, and Merton—I should have been happier if Dr. Klapper had lent his support to broadening our notion of what constitutes "research" on the effects of mass media.

DAVID RIESMAN

University of Chicago

A History of Libraries. By ALFRED HESSEL; translated with supplementary material by REUBEN PEISS. Washington, D.C.: Scarecrow Press, 1950. Pp. v+198. \$4.00.

A quarter-century ago, Alfred Hessel, the distinguished librarian of the University of Göttingen, published his *Geschichte der Bibliotheken*,¹ a compact and scholarly survey of world library history from its known beginnings to World War I. Despite the excellence of this monograph, it has, because of the language barrier, long been neglected by American librarians. Now Reuben Peiss, formerly associated with the Harvard University Library, the Library of Congress, and the State Department and at present a member of the faculty of the library school of the University of California, has given us an admirably straightforward translation of the first eight chapters of this work, to which has been added an entirely new ninth chapter, largely the original work of the translator, that brings the *History* more nearly down to date.

Hessel's text, then, as here translated, opens with a consideration of the scattered predecessors of the pre-Diadochian libraries of the Ptolemies of Alexandria, especially the famous collection of Assurbanipal of Nineveh, and proceeds chronologically through the classical period of the ancient world, the Middle Ages and the Carolingian Renaissance, the late Middle Ages, the Renaissance and Reformation, the seventeenth century, the Enlightenment, and so on to the French Revolution and the nineteenth century. Throughout, attention has been entirely focused upon European, especially central and western European, library development. The treatment is unusual, not only because of the surprising amount of factual material that has been skilfully interwoven into the fabric of the narrative, but also for the reason that the author has been singularly successful in emphasizing the development of the library as a social agency conditioned by the pattern of its coeval culture. Though the reviewer would like to believe that the influence of the Irish Renaissance upon library development was greater than is suggested by the three sentences with which it is dismissed on page 15, the author throughout has maintained a wholly laudable balance in his treatment of the contribution of the several European countries to library promotion. Unlike many German scholars, Hessel has not burdened his pages with excessive attention to Teutonic institutions.

The author did not intend to make any substantial additions to the existing literature of li-

¹ Alfred Hessel, *Geschichte der Bibliotheken, ein Überblick von ihren Anfängen bis zur Gegenwart* (Göttingen: Dr. H. Th. Pellens & Co., 1925).

library history, but, rather, it was his desire to present an accurate synthesis of the work of others. This quality makes the volume particularly useful as a much-needed text for library-school courses in the history of European libraries. Peiss's translation is faithful to the original, avoids the circumlocutions of Germanic sentence structure, flows freely and smoothly, and, though not stylistically brilliant, may be easily read and comprehended. "In making this translation," he writes in the Preface, "I have kept constantly in mind American librarians and library students" (p. iv).

The ninth chapter of the Hessel volume, which occupies almost one-fourth of the bulk of the entire text, merits special and separate consideration, both for the reason that it is almost entirely an original treatment rather than a translation and because it is the only place in the book where American library development is considered. Unhappily, this concluding chapter does not achieve the degree of success so characteristic of the preceding eight. In part, this may well be due to the fact that the great outburst in library activity, especially in England and the United States, that followed the midpoint of the nineteenth century resulted in a library movement that was too intricate and complex to admit of the compact survey treatment employed by Hessel in describing the preceding centuries. Unfortunately, the lack of balance and perspective is all too conspicuous in this chapter. Too much attention, for example, is paid to the Library of Congress and the proliferation of its activities. Dewey, Putnam, Cogswell, and Billings receive fulsome praise, but the equally important names of Jewett, Cutter, Winsor, and Dana are completely neglected. Conversely, Archibald MacLeish is given probably too much credit (p. 92), though the magnitude of his contribution to American librarianship, during his brief incumbency as Librarian of Congress, is still to be assessed. Worst of all, the author devotes an excessive amount of space to cataloging, storage libraries, microfilming, and other technical developments, but the very important special-library movement, which was one of the most magnificent developments in American librarianship, has been entirely ignored. The author assures us that he has "tried hard . . . to conform to Hessel's general method of focusing upon significant trends" (p. iv), but these few examples illustrate his failure to pursue the skilful course of his German model. Also, he has not achieved any real integration

of modern library development with its social and cultural setting but is content merely to interject occasional brief recapitulations of the findings of Ditzion with respect to the relation of the public library movement in the United States and England to contemporary economic and social changes in its milieu. All this does not imply that the translator would have done better to have followed directly, as he did in the earlier chapters, the work of Hessel, yet it does lead one to believe that greater care in the preparation of the material might have resulted in a more balanced and objective presentation. The weakness of this final chapter is especially unfortunate inasmuch as it treats of a period that is far more important than any other in the annals of library history, and one in which sufficient research has now been accomplished to make possible a really illuminating synthesis.

The text concludes with an admirable bibliography of library history that covers almost forty pages and is a considerable expansion and rearrangement of the original. It will be extremely useful, even though it does include some items that are not, strictly speaking, library history (e.g., the L.C. *List of Subject Headings*, with supplements, and the *Prussian Instructions*), while omitting such important historical source materials as Jewett's and Rhees's "Notices" of public libraries in the United States. The text throughout is carefully documented, which adds materially to its usefulness. The decision to omit the illustrations that adorned the original German text was a wise one, since they were all drawn from other sources and were not particularly well reproduced, but the retention of the citations to those plates in the translation would seem to serve no useful purpose and only confuses the reader.

This book cannot be dismissed, however, without some mention of the manner of its publication, which to the reviewer is fully as interesting and important as the text itself. Reproduced by photo-offset from typewritten copy, using "book face" type with right-hand margins unjustified, the volume is the first to come from the Scarecrow Press, a new undertaking promoted by Ralph R. Shaw, librarian of the Department of Agriculture. Ralph Shaw, who is an able translator in his own right, has long been concerned over the failure of our present system of book production and marketing to provide for the dissemination of scholarly works that must necessarily be high in production and distribution costs but low in volume of sales and

hence "unprofitable" under our existing pattern of book publishing. The basic problems in scholarly publishing are not the excessive costs of production, which have taken the major share of the blame in the past, but rather the costs of distribution, about which relatively little has been said. To be sure, the offset technique effects some savings over letterpress composition, but the big savings accrue through economies in distribution—advertising, marketing, and overhead. A sale of three hundred copies of the present book will more than repay the direct costs of production; five hundred copies will return in full for all expenses, including clerical labor, overhead, interest on investment, and the like. Sales in excess of five hundred copies will return a profit on the enterprise. In addition, royalties to the author begin with the first copy sold, a practice not common in scholarly publication ventures. Obviously, no one will amass a fortune from the sale of *A History of Libraries*, but a worth-while book, which otherwise would not have appeared, will have been made available to the public, and no one will suffer financially from the undertaking.

The management of the Scarecrow Press is quick to point out that it supplements, but does not compete with, the university presses and the trade publishers, because it operates in an edition range that is lower than either now finds profitable. But the reviewer cannot but hope that the traditional presses will regard this venture as completely worthy of serious and careful study; it may inspire them to a more critical appraisal of their own expenditures and ultimately extend the possibilities of publication for limited sale. In any event, the Scarecrow Press is in every way a "noble experiment" that merits the highest possible success. *Glück auf!*

J. H. SHERA

Graduate Library School
University of Chicago

Jefferson's Ideas on a University Library: Letters from the Founder of the University of Virginia to a Boston Bookseller. Edited by ELIZABETH COMETTI. Charlottesville, Va.: Tracy W. McGregor Library, 1950. Pp. 49. \$2.00.

The reader will find in the secondary, rather than in the main, title of this book an accurate indication of its contents. In her careful Introduction Professor Cometti mentions, to be sure, some of the circumstances of the founding of the

library at the University of Virginia; but her remarks, and the texts of the fourteen letters which she reprints, deal chiefly with the negotiations between the aging Jefferson and the Boston firm of Cummings, Hilliard and Company, which was commissioned to establish a bookstore in Charlottesville to serve the students and teachers in the new university and to supply books for its collections.

As a guide to his agents Jefferson himself provided a list of desiderata, some of which proved difficult to obtain. His correspondence with Hilliard reveals some impatience at the occasional failures of his dealer (who seems to have had special difficulty in supplying textbooks needed for instruction), as well as satisfaction at the receipt of large and valuable shipments. Considerable incidental information is given about the new university, for example, the interest of its founders in the study of Anglo-Saxon, and the kind of authorities accepted in such subjects as history and law. Librarians will not be surprised to learn that book funds were limited (the total amount deposited for Hilliard's use was \$18,000.00) but may be struck by the relatively high prices paid for some of the titles obtained—Lingard's *History of England* appears to have cost \$30.00, Wilson's *Ornithology* \$90.00.

As might be expected, Jefferson was usually precise in his instructions and critical in his examination of the editions furnished. In the last letter of the series, dated from Monticello on May 31, 1826, the rector tells of the preparations being made for the fitting-up of the library for the accommodation of the importations: "it is possible that by the time of their arrival at the University the room in which they are to be arranged & the necessary presses may be ready. it appears to me indispensable that your visit should be timed exactly to those 2 events, to wit the actual arrival of the books here, and the readiness of the room & presses." Hilliard was present when the boxes were opened; Jefferson was not; he had died a few days before the event which he had looked forward to with so much satisfaction.

Professor Cometti has done her editorial work well, amplifying the text with notes and other apparatus; and her volume has been handsomely produced in a style which does credit to the Tracy W. McGregor Library.

WARNER G. RICE

General Library
University of Michigan

A Philosophy of Librarianship. By A. BROADFIELD. London: Grafton & Co., 1949. Pp. 120. 12s. 6d.

Mr. Broadfield, of the Leicester City Reference Library, would find few dissenters from his stand that the librarian's "task is not merely to satisfy the requirements of the thinker and the independent student of truth. He has the more fundamental task of helping to create such thinkers and students" (p. 13). Unfortunately, Broadfield does not stop with this simple statement. He goes on to condemn the public relations idea, the missionary idea, the idea that the librarian should impose his judgment upon his patrons, the idea that the librarian has any obligation to distinguish himself as a citizen or as a leader in the community in any way. The reader can hardly be blamed if he wonders how he is to create the thinkers and students if he is not allowed to lead, to advertise, or to impose his standards upon the library collection. To Broadfield this is simple. While he admits that, if the librarian sits back and waits, the brilliant minds will not be attracted into the library, he maintains that the librarian's "first duty" is to think for himself. If he carries it out, his own house will be in order. His library will be equipped with the matter for thought which other thinkers require. Students will thus come into existence" (p. 13).

This theory of the spontaneous generation of students is typical of the nonpractical level on which all Broadfield's principles are enunciated. This is deliberate; he announces from the start that the philosophy of librarianship should be concerned only indirectly with practice, and he goes on record against the librarian's devotion to scientific method, pragmatism, determinism, Comtism, and "mere efficiency." But his system of "successful muddle" constantly leads him into impasses that require some practical method of escape which he will not demean himself to consider. Thus he denies the librarian the right to suppress ideas and opinions, no matter how wrong he may think them, and then goes on to define desirable impartiality as the support of the side one thinks is true, letting beliefs that are "deservedly worsted . . . die a natural death" (p. 77). In any practical sense, of course, the support of the truth, as one sees it, at the expense of its opposite untruth is the very suppression of wrong ideas which Broadfield condemns—but he is not concerned with anything so gauche as the practical sense.

Many similar philosophical problems which

face the librarian are raised by Broadfield in a terse and colorful style. That they are not resolved for the reader in practical terms does not disturb him. He points out that "no philosophy should set out to give a dogmatic account of the one and only principle according to which problems should be faced. It should cause others to find their principles" (p. 7). This little book is likely to cause the reader to find his principles, all right, if only because the highly individual views of the author goad him into angry refutation.

LESTER ASHEIM

Graduate Library School
University of Chicago

Jahrbuch der österreichischen Wissenschaft: 2. Jahrgang 1949-1950. Issued by the VERBAND-KOMMISSION ÖSTERREICHISCHER WISSENSCHAFT. Vienna: Österreichischer Bundesverlag, 1950. Pp. 744. \$7.00.

The second edition of this valuable and skillfully edited directory of Austrian scholarly institutions impressively documents the wealth of Austrian culture. Its size, almost doubling that of the first edition, may be taken as a hopeful sign for the recovery of European scholarship.

The classification of the vast material into ten broad classes follows the breakdown of the first edition with only slight variations (cf. the review in the *Library Quarterly*, XIX, 223). Of major interest for American librarians are the following groups:

The Austrian Academy of Science.—A well-made summary with important bibliographical annotations. It gives a list of the many committees, together with their research objectives and their major publications.

Institutions of higher learning.—With good notes on the history of the different institutions. Especially noteworthy is the chapter on the University of Vienna.

Archives.—One of the best chapters of the book. The excellent description of the great archival holdings should be called to the attention of all persons engaged in research on European history.

Libraries.—The arrangement follows, on the whole, that of the first edition. The only major improvement is a fuller description of the Austrian National Library. The short descriptions of some of the world-famous monastery libraries are a pathetic reminder of the hardship that Austria suffered during the German occupation.

Many monasteries were closed and the libraries carried away. Restitution to the rightful owners is progressing only slowly.

Museums.—One of the major chapters, with very good descriptions and an excellent table of abbreviations.

Professor R. Meister and his staff should be congratulated on this excellent reference book; it will be used most advantageously in major research libraries throughout the world.

FELIX REICHMANN

Cornell University Library
Ithaca, New York

Bibliographical Services, Their Present State and Possibilities of Improvement. Prepared by the UNESCO/Library of Congress Bibliographical Survey. Washington, 1950. Pp. ix+67, v+42.

Bibliographical Services, Their Present State and Possibilities of Improvement was prepared as a working paper for an international conference on bibliography; and it is stated in the Preface by Dr. Luther H. Evans, Librarian of Congress, that the document should include,

as far as circumstances should allow, a factual statement of the present state of bibliographical services, an analysis of these facts so as to identify the significant problems, a review of current opinion either as expressed by leading authorities or as reflecting national or regional experience . . . and a formulation of specific proposals for action.

These considerations were explored in the First Interim Report of the UNESCO/Library of Congress Bibliographical Planning Group, published as an appendix to the *Library of Congress Information Bulletin* for July 5-11, 1949, and were developed in outline in the group's Second Interim Report, which appeared as an appendix to the *Information Bulletin* for September 13-19. Separate sections in the Second Interim Report are devoted to "Conclusions" and "Recommendations." The final report, *Bibliographical Services*, does not continue in the direction pursued in the two preliminary reports and makes no specific recommendations. The radical difference between the interim reports and *Bibliographical Services* may reflect a change at UNESCO, because H. C. Campbell of the Research Library and Bibliographical Development section wrote in his letter of February 22, 1950, to John Mackenzie Cory, executive secre-

tary of the American Library Association: "UNESCO has requested the Library of Congress not to make, in the report being sent to you [*Bibliographical Services*], specific and detailed recommendations."

The final report of the survey contains seven chapters by Verner W. Clapp, chief assistant librarian, and an appendix, "Notes on the Development of the Concept of Current Complete National Bibliography," by Mrs. Kathrine O. Murra, executive secretary of the UNESCO/Library of Congress Bibliographical Planning Group. Chapter i deals with definitions and the purpose and task of bibliography. The definitions are acceptable, but the other paragraphs are weakened by vague and repetitive phrases. Basic questions such as "Do intellectual workers and does intellectual work actually suffer from defects in bibliographic services, and if so how and to what extent?" are raised in chapter ii; but they are unanswered for want of precise data. Improvements in bibliographic services (chap. iii) are to be achieved through "Mechanics of Integration" including a planning body, a plan, co-operation in the execution of the plan, and facilitation of individual activities; but how these are to operate is not indicated.

The importance of current comprehensive bibliography as a basis for other bibliographic activities is emphasized in chapter iv, and the volume of the material to be controlled staggers the imagination. The proposal to provide analytic indexes to the contents of more than twelve thousand current American newspapers (4,095) goes beyond the realm of the feasible and, probably, the desirable. Clapp must have had his tongue in cheek when he wrote: "All that is needed [to produce an inexpensive and all-inclusive bibliographic service] is the technique—and the necessary cooperation!" Current selective bibliography (chap. v) is dependent on current comprehensive bibliography, and deficiencies in the latter hinder the preparation of the former. Compilers of current selective bibliographies have been obliged to undertake some of the labor which should have been performed by comprehensive bibliography. Clapp concludes that "the defect is to a considerable extent one of method," and he believes that comprehensive bibliographic services should be "much more fully mechanized."

The survey emphasizes the need for bibliographical planning at the national and international levels (chaps. vi and vii). Clapp considers it unlikely that international bodies can

provide bibliographic services and believes that an international program in this field should promote the effectiveness of national bibliographic activity. Three elements—a planning body, the formulation of specific plans, and the prosecution of inquiry as a preliminary to making plans—are prerequisites to developments in this area.

The Preface to *Bibliographical Services* records that UNESCO's attention in the bibliographic field has progressed from particular to more general fields of endeavor and observes that the area of the UNESCO/Library of Congress Bibliographical Survey is that of complete generalization. The final report presents few facts in defense of its generalizations; and, as requested by UNESCO, it contains no specific proposals for action. *Bibliographical Services* would be a more useful document if it set forth the considered judgments of the UNESCO/Library of Congress Bibliographical Planning Group and presented a selection of the data evaluated by the members. In its present form the survey contains little to which objection should be made; on the other hand, *Bibliographical Services* is singularly devoid of information regarding "their present state and possibilities of improvement."

LESLIE W. DUNLAP

University of Illinois Library School
Urbana, Illinois

"United Nations Documents Index: United Nations and Specialized Agencies Documents and Publications," Vol. I, No. 1 (January, 1950). Issued monthly by the UNITED NATIONS. New York: United Nations, January 1950. Pp. 83. Annual subscription, \$7.50; Sw. fr. 30.00. (Lithoprinted.)

The appearance of the new monthly "United Nations Documents Index" less than five years after the birth of the new world organization is itself an indication that progress in international affairs can be and has been made. The new index is in every respect the equal of the best national documents indexes, all of which needed much more than five years' time to achieve their present level of excellence. Even so, it seems unfortunate that we can so easily discern the nature and the title of the pattern which was followed and that it was not considered possible to throw off the shackles of that pattern and achieve a

new and wonderful index which would be at once attractive to look at and easy to use. Perhaps that would be expecting too much.

Likewise, it may also be expecting too much to ask so tender an infant to insist on a measure of consistency in document distribution policies, even though its divisions number seventeen instead of two hundred. For already the old nationalistic tendencies are apparent: Some documents are issued free to some people, to some libraries, by some UN organizations; other copies of the same documents are available only at a price to other people, other libraries, from the same or other UN organizations. With only seventeen organizations to consider, the pattern as yet is fairly simple; it is still possible for an alert and intelligent documents librarian to make first inquiry to the proper place with the proper remittance or argument for receiving the document free. All others will already find it necessary to study with careful attention the various instructions on how to order UN publications which are part and parcel of this new "Index."

Those members and organizations of the library profession who can afford to spend \$7.50 (or Sw. fr. 30.00) a year now have the "Index," postpaid. They will use it gratefully, for it is the best that the best of all possible world organizations was able to produce. But most of the more than two billion people who constitute the United Nations are receiving no help whatever toward obtaining the publications which they need in order to understand and support their world organization.

LEROY CHARLES MERRITT

School of Librarianship
University of California

"The Music Index: 1949 Annual Cumulation," Vol. I, No. 12 (December, 1949). Detroit: Information Service, Inc., 1950. Pp. 308. \$25.00; annual subscription rate, including monthly issues and annual cumulation, \$125.00. (Lithoprinted.)

During the past year, music librarians and teachers of music have had an opportunity to subscribe to the first index entirely devoted to music periodicals. Unfortunately, the high cost of the subscription made the purchase of the service impossible for a large number of libraries whose budgets were already strained to the

breaking point. As a result, the editors have recently issued a statement to the effect that "unless the number of subscriptions doubles this coming year we will very seriously consider ceasing the publication of the Index in 1951." In view of the value of the service rendered, a service which has expanded from forty-one periodicals indexed in the first month of publication to eighty at the year's end, a cessation would be a real catastrophe.

Since the "Index" is intended for all types of libraries, whose patrons show widely diversified interests, the choice of periodicals indexed is necessarily catholic, ranging from scholarly journals, such as the *Journal of the American Musicological Society* and *Musica disciplina*, to *Downbeat*, *Billboard*, and *Variety*. A happy symptom from the point of view of the scholar is shown in a comparison of the "Cumulation" with earlier monthly issues. There has been a steady increase in the number of scholarly journals indexed, especially those from abroad. Further expansion in this area could be profitably made. Scholars would welcome the inclusion of *Acta musicologica*, the French *Revue de musicologie*, and other, similar journals. Such inclusion would, in part, supplement the index, now under preparation by Musurgia Publishers, of journals of the past such as the *Sammelbände der internationalen Musikgesellschaft* and the *Monatshefte für Musikgeschichte*.

News periodicals of the type of *Musical America*, *Musical Courier*, and *Music News* are well represented. Indexing of such periodicals is especially useful for matters of contemporary importance, such as concerts, book and music reviews, obituaries, and the like.

To sample only one of the many subject headings for a brief analysis, various kinds of reviews are indexed in diverse ways depending upon the category in which the review belongs. Criticisms of performances are listed under the name of the performer or organization; book reviews by author alphabetically under the main entry "Book Reviews"; reviews of published music are given a double listing under composer and medium. It is inevitable that minor problems relative to use would occur in the listing of large amounts of material. To quote only one such instance, a spot check shows, under the name of the composer Guillaume de Machaut, references to reviews of the two editions (1948) of his *Messe Notre Dame*. One would expect to find duplications of the information under "Mass," "Vocal Music," "Choral Music,"

"Church Music," and "Catholic Music," but the listing occurs only in one category other than that of composer's name, i.e., under "Church Music—Reviews." For quick reference a somewhat larger amount of duplication or further cross-references would be helpful. It is obvious that a line must be drawn somewhere in order to avoid the pyramiding of material into unnecessary bulk, and this doubtless accounts for the screening process in the duplication of data. Though the editors have not been completely consistent in this regard, the general result is highly successful, and cross-references are, for the most part, carefully chosen in order to simplify the task of the user.

SCOTT GOLDTHWAITE

Department of Music
University of Chicago

Oregon Imprints 1847-1870. By DOUGLAS C. McMURTRIE. ("University of Oregon Library Studies in Bibliography," No. 2.) Eugene, Ore.: University of Oregon Press, 1950. Pp. xxi+206. Cloth, \$5.00; paper, \$3.00.

Another volume, entitled *Oregon Imprints, 1847-1870*, has been added to that valuable series of publications known as the "American Imprints Inventory," which was planned to record the early publications of the several states. The present volume brings nearer to completion a basis for a comprehensive history of printing in America.

Douglas C. McMurtrie, for some thirteen years before his death in 1944, was engaged in listing the output of Oregon presses. He was aided by the Works Progress Administration and by local bibliographers in bringing together a list of 619 titles. The University of Oregon Press has published the bibliography as the "University of Oregon Library Studies in Bibliography," No. 2.

Each item in the bibliography is fully described, with notes of variants and location of copies in institutions and in private libraries in Oregon and elsewhere in the United States. Of the 619 titles, 530 are books and pamphlets, and the remainder are broadsides and folders of an ephemeral character. The book is illustrated by thirteen reproductions of title-pages and broadsides.

A study of the titles reveals a phase of the

history of Oregon as a territory and its first twelve years of statehood. Here is found not only a record of printed materials but a guide to sources for the study of the political, social, and economic interests of a pioneer people building a society on the frontier. There is an unexpectedly large number of religious publications. For example: 67 items were issued under the auspices of the Baptists, 17 by the Methodists, 13 by the Congregationalists, 12 by the Protestant Episcopalians, and 4 by the Catholics. The same is true for fraternal orders, indicating the early organization of chapters in the West. There are few works that could be classed as literature or science.

The publication of *Oregon Imprints* will stimulate collectors and librarians to check titles in their collections, to safeguard those they find, and to search for others. This renewed interest will extend beyond Oregon, as shown in the recent brochure *Early Oregon Imprints at Yale*, in which rare and unique copies of Oregon imprints in the Coe Collection are fully described.

No bibliography of this type can be absolutely complete. Additional titles will doubtless be found, but the major product of Oregon presses for the period has been assembled and described. The editor has concluded the volume with an author index, and with an extremely useful subject index which refers to titles that relate to such topics, among others, as printing, libraries, educational institutions, newspapers, book catalogs, and railroads.

EDITH M. COULTER

*School of Librarianship
University of California*

Catholic Library Practice, Vol. II. Edited by BROTHER DAVID MARTIN, C.S.C. Portland, Ore.: University of Portland Press, 1950. Pp. viii+276. \$3.75.

Another bouquet should be thrown to the librarian of the University of Portland for a second series of fourteen papers on important aspects of Catholic librarianship. This treatment of specific subjects by as many authorities nicely complements the first series on general subjects, published in 1947. Primarily intended for pastors, diocesan superintendents of schools, and Catholic teachers, non-Catholic educators, including librarians, will find in this volume methods for handling their Catholic clientele and the solution to some problems common to

all libraries. The viewpoint is pragmatic, not theoretic. Some subjects, such as pastor's libraries, convent libraries, Catholic college periodicals, Catholic reference books, and Catholic illustrators of children's books, have never before been treated so comprehensively. The aim of having the contributions practical, readable, and problem-solving has been achieved.

More particularly, Father Gardiner, S.J., editor of *America*, sees the future of reading as a race between the illiteracy of the comics and the stimulation of gigantic book clubs. Brother Thomas, librarian of Manhattan College, brings us up to date on the 266 Catholic newspapers. Sister Norberta, director of the Library Department at Marywood College, contributes a brilliant analysis of sixty-nine Catholic college magazines, pointing out the need for a directory and for further evaluation. Eugene Willging, librarian of Catholic University of America and dean of Catholic pamphlet bibliography, stresses social-problem materials. Joseph Popecki of his staff points up four specific applications of microphotography in Catholic libraries and has compiled an excellent annotated list of reading machines. Also from Catholic University, Father Kortendick, head of its Library Department, writes on the pastor's library. Sister M. Florence, librarian of Mount St. Scholastica, contributes a parallel paper on the convent library. The incisive treatment of school-library planning by Sister Febronia, a high-school library supervisor, is recommended reading for all school administrators. Miss Kircher of the Newark Public Library applies bibliotherapy, her favorite specialty, to school libraries. Father Redmond Burke, director of libraries at De Paul University, has a scholarly classified list of reference works on Catholic subjects. Phillips Temple, librarian of Georgetown University, in his usual ebullient style describes publicity as better service. Elizabeth Monroe, professor of English at Brooklyn College, insists that librarians read books rather than rely on book reviewers—to which we say "Amen!" Sister Mary Jean, an illustrator herself, calls upon Catholic publishers to encourage Catholic commercial artists. Finally, Sister Mary Joseph, director of the Gallery of Living Catholic Authors, describes her work.

Brother Martin has added an appendix of tables and plates, and there is an index. And now, with this second series a physical reality, we hope Brother Martin will develop another,

pushing back still farther the frontiers not only of Catholic but of all librarianship.

RICHARD J. HURLEY

Department of Library Science
University of Michigan

Jesuit Relations and Other Americana in the Library of James F. Bell. Compiled by FRANK K. WALTER and VIRGINIA DONEGHY. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1950. Pp. xii + 419. \$25.00.

When McCoy's *Jesuit Relations of Canada* was reviewed in the *Library Quarterly* in 1942, the belief was expressed that it might be a definitive and enduring work. Although the meticulously full bibliographic description of the present, later catalog adds some variants not noted in the former, it cannot be said that the prediction has been invalidated. McCoy himself foresaw the probability of such a development, and, considering the standards of popular French printing in the seventeenth century, it is to be expected that further examination will reveal other minor textual divergencies.

The forty-one annual reports which comprise the *Jesuit Relations of Canada* have had a strangely varied audience. They were conceived merely as private reports to the religious superiors of the missionaries, not differing in this respect from similar reports made by other Jesuits engaged in the same kind of work in other parts of the world. Upon publication, their general interest resulted in their enjoying a popular success. Today they constitute a rich source of acute observations on Indian life in seventeenth-century New France and on the geography and zoology of the regions.

The present catalog, however, would seem to be of value primarily to students of the history of printing. The variants which are new do not affect the substance of the text. In addition to the reproductions of title-pages (which McCoy also includes), there are reproductions of the devices and ornaments used by the printers who produced the series.

The other Americana in the collection are made up of eight manuscript and 270 printed items relating to the discovery and exploration of America. Particular emphasis is laid on the territory which roughly corresponds to that covered by the *Relations*. The Minnesota area is especially well represented. The fulness of cataloging varies with the age of the title.

The entire work is convincing evidence of Bell's discrimination as a collector and the compilers' competence in bibliographic description. The printing and paper used are very attractive but are not, unfortunately, equaled by the quality of the binding. Because of the scarcity of McCoy's bibliography (only 350 copies were printed), this work may serve as a substitute.

BRENDAN C. CONNOLLY

Catholic University of America
Washington, D.C.

Otto Friderich Müller's Zoologica Danica. By JEAN ANKER. ("Library Research Monographs," Vol. I.) Copenhagen: Ejnar Munksgaard, 1950. Pp. xiii + 108. Dan. cr. 12.00.

Dr. Jean Anker, chief librarian of the University Library at Copenhagen, has dealt with the life and times of the Danish zoologist Otto Friderich Müller in an earlier volume with the subtitle *A Contribution to the History of Biologic Science in the Eighteenth Century*. This perhaps adequately explains his preoccupation with the details, even the minutiae, of the history of the *Zoologica Danica*. This work pioneered in the description of marine animals, expanding the contemporary treatment of various groups in Linnaeus' *Systema naturae*, so that it becomes an essential post-Linnaean sourcebook for the nomenclature of marine animals, especially in groups such as the inclusive "Vermes." It is the emphasis on the various kinds of marine animals, and especially on worms, both free-living and parasitic, that is most characteristic in the *Zoologica Danica*, as these were the fields of interest in which Müller was most competent and most notably a pioneer.

The history of the production of the four volumes of the *Zoologica Danica*, the publication of which, with the "prodrome," extended over the years 1776-1806, gives an insight into the methods of financing both studies and publication in the eighteenth century—the equivalent of the promotion of research in our times. The annual salary of Christian F. Müller (the brother of Otto Friderich) as artist and engraver for the *Flora Danica* and for his brother's zoological works amounted to some 400 rixdollars, which, as he was engaged in this work for forty years, must have amounted to an adequate living. The plates were colored by hand by girls from an orphanage in Copenhagen, and 200 rixdollars a year was appropriated for this purpose. As for

the expenses of the author and the financing of his marine collecting and his visits to Norway, these seem to have offered no difficulty after his marriage, at the age of forty-three, to a wealthy Norwegian widow.

It was perhaps the most significant element in the Linnaean system of classification that its categories permitted revision, subdivision, and amplification without loss or replacement of the nucleus of named groups established by the Swedish naturalist. The success of the *Systema naturae* was foreshadowed even in the first edition of 1735, and Müller had at hand the successive later editions during his years as tutor in a Danish noble family. In Linnaeus' work the category that included the great mass of marine life, the class "Vermes," was an omnium-gatherum, the least critically examined group, including even the mollusks. Müller's works brought the first glimmerings of order into this vast assemblage of living forms, and, outdated as it now is, one may recognize in it, if not a cornerstone of descriptive zoölogy, certainly one of the flights of steps by which our knowledge of marine animals has advanced.

Otto Friderich Müller himself completed the first two parts of the work (published 1777-88) and left most of the plates prepared for the third. The work was completed by other authors: Peter Christian Abildgaard, who died in 1790, Martin Vahl, who at his death in 1804 was succeeded by Johan Severin Holton, and Jens Rathke, who took on the completion of the work after Holton's death in 1805.

The work at hand, a "Library Research Monograph" appearing under the auspices of the Scientific and Medical Department of the University Library, Copenhagen, is elaborately scholarly. Much of the footnote machinery of scholarship might well have been omitted. The treatment, in general, is discursive, perhaps the more evidently so from the somewhat awkward English translation in which it appears.

KARL P. SCHMIDT

Chicago Natural History Museum

Education for Librarianship. By J. PERIAM DANTON. ("UNESCO Public Library Manuals," No. 1.) Mesnil, France: United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, 1949. Pp. 97.

In the Foreword to this first of UNESCO's public library manuals, M. Torres-Bodet, direc-

tor-general, informs the reader that "we have undertaken the publication of a series of manuals to make the best possible experience in public library work widely known throughout the world." This is indeed a large order—not least, the identification of "the best possible experience." Fortunately, Danton has been less ambitious. With both feet firmly planted on the solid ground of experience, he has outlined succinctly yet comprehensively the current practice of American library schools, but with regard for the fact that American experience is not necessarily universally pertinent. This approach, however germane to the author's and UNESCO's purposes, is somewhat disappointing to the American librarian in quest of ideas or, at least, of critical evaluation.

It is certainly unfair, however, to appraise a book while ignoring the author's purpose in writing it. It was not Danton's purpose to evaluate education for librarianship in America but, rather, to provide a guide which would aid librarians in establishing and developing library training programs throughout the world. It was a difficult assignment. Generalities were inescapable, as was also a degree of naïveté and dogmatism with respect to what "should be." The fact is that Danton's principles and rules-of-thumb work.

However, in my judgment, Danton's little volume lacks focus. There is little obvious effort to identify degrees of importance among the various factors discussed. Perhaps the reader's common sense can be expected to tell him that the student and the teacher are the important variables, that a clear understanding of objectives and a few tools are indispensable to a sound result, that most, if not all, other considerations are secondary, and that discipline (for example) is not a very important problem in the good library school. Certainly, the chief problems of library education in America are those of recruiting the best possible students and the best possible faculties. One may assume that the same problems are universal. They involve, among their causes, the status of library service and of teaching and the budgets of library schools. Though Danton could not be expected to deal comprehensively with these problems and their solutions, the book would be strengthened, I think, if they had been clearly defined and their importance indicated.

The Selected Bibliography should prove to be one of the most useful features of the book, and the whole volume will undoubtedly serve its purpose admirably. The series which it intro-

duces can hardly fail to advance the cause of library service throughout the world.

G. FLINT PURDY

Wayne University Library
Detroit, Michigan

First Steps in Librarianship. By K. C. HARRISON. London: Grafton & Co., 1950. Pp. 135. 8s.6d.

Students training for librarianship in Britain follow a three-part course of studies. After one year's work in a library, the young assistant takes a first examination intended to test his suitability for librarianship. To guide the beginner, K. C. Harrison, borough librarian of Eastbourne and a senior examiner, has set out "a conspectus of the knowledge required for the [Entrance] Examination."

This short book is an enlarged outline of the syllabus, together with specific readings, examples of questions, and an index. Intended primarily for assistants in public libraries, it deals with the general organization of libraries in Britain, and with the Library Committee, staff, library departments, book processing, and reference material.

The style is easy and the expression simple, but it could have been even simpler. Terms (e.g., "vertical files," "photostat," "microfilm," "carrel") should have been defined; the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust and an "approved" library might have been explained. It is presumptive to write (p. 10): "As many students may know [municipal boroughs] have in the last few years lost to county councils their one-time powers to run their own elementary schools and police."

It would have been more useful if the twenty-three quick-reference books had been arranged in Dewey order, with class numbers shown, to correspond with the order on the shelves in the majority of public libraries.

The description of a county library headquarters (p. 14) is inadequate and gives a wrong impression of modern conditions. No mention is made of the "regional" branch library system originating in Derbyshire (omitted from the list of "good" county library systems on p. 16).

The author notes that the division of staff into professional and clerical grades is a fact in America, but he omits reference to a similar setup in Scandinavia.

Apart from the points criticized, the book

contains a number of useful maxims for the beginner. The opening sentence urges the reader to study libraries in many places if he would gain a breadth of outlook and develop a critical approach to his own work that would be helpful in the examination.

American librarians may be interested in the description of the "delayed discharge" (pp. 53-54), for, in spite of modern inventions, the Browne system still seems to be the most economical, efficient, foolproof, and useful for all purposes.

The student has a useful tool in this book. It is written in a simple but interesting manner and should encourage rather than frighten him in anticipation of the more advanced studies and examinations that lie ahead.

H. A. WHATLEY

Birmingham Public Libraries
Birmingham, England

"A Basic Book Collection for Junior High Schools." Edited by ELSA R. BERNER and MABEL SACRA, with the assistance of an advisory committee of teachers and librarians working with junior high school pupils. Chicago: American Library Association, 1950. Pp. 76. \$1.75. (Lithoprinted.)

This first basic list for the junior high school is edited by two junior high school librarians assisted by four school librarians from other states. The experimental nature of the endeavor is emphasized in the Preface.

The weaknesses of the list are chiefly those inherent in the position of the junior high school, which is surely the "middle button" in the educational scale. Well as we all may know that the junior high school librarian must be familiar with both children's and young people's books, her perplexities are sharply highlighted when, on the fiction list, we see *Mama's Bank Account* just one title away from *Understood Betsy*.

The list follows the standard pattern set in the two other basic lists, with arrangement by DC classification. In addition, titles are numbered from 1 to 676 (including twenty-seven magazines), and index citations are to title number, not page number. This reviewer hopes that this confusing innovation will not be continued in future editions. On this and other technical matters, there is need for the formulation of a policy to be adhered to in all ALA book-

lists, in order that entries may be consistent with cataloging practice.

Annotations generally give exact indication of the book's content, and an honest and successful attempt has been made to include subjects of importance to boys and girls. For these reasons especially, the list will be welcomed by part-time and teacher-librarians. In so short a list a general reference to an author or a series of informational books might often have been quite as satisfactory as individual citation of books on minor subjects. The space thus saved could well have been given to consideration of remedial reading materials, often the librarian's most urgent need. Another serious omission is pamphlets, which are surely most needed in a small library.

The magazine list was adapted from one prepared by the Magazine Evaluation Committee of the American Association of School Librarians for the senior high school list.

An excellent Preface reminds us of the large number of out-of-print titles necessarily omitted from a buying list, of the need for new travel books, and of the difficulty of making satisfactory choices of fiction.

Shorter than either the senior high school or the elementary list, the amount of overlapping is indicated in the inclusion of 160 titles which are also in the 1950 *Basic Book Collection for High Schools* and of 121 which were in the 1943 edition of *A Basic Book Collection for Elementary Grades*.

Examination of this newcomer to the "basic" family reminds us of the opportunities of the junior high school librarian. If she has a dual set of problems, she just as surely has a double portion of satisfactions in her contacts with boys and girls at their most responsive reading age.

LAURA K. MARTIN

Department of Library Science
University of Kentucky

The First Twenty-five Years of the Louisiana State Library, 1925-1950. By MARGARET DIXON and NANTHELLE GITTINGER. Baton Rouge: Louisiana State Library, 1950. Pp. 27.

This is library history for the layman. Written on the occasion of the Louisiana State Library's twenty-fifth anniversary, this booklet is designed to tell in text and pictures, as simply

and appealingly as possible, what the library has accomplished in the development of state-wide service during the first quarter-century of its existence.

There is no doubt that the story deserves telling. Twenty-five years ago, Louisiana was virtually without public library service. Today, in spite of years of depression, war, floods, and other handicaps, there are locally supported library systems in thirty-one of the state's sixty-four parishes (counties), with branches and bookmobiles bringing library service to thousands of Louisiana citizens. This is a remarkable achievement, particularly in view of the state's large rural population and the limited educational background of many of its people.

The explanation of this progress lies in several factors: (1) an aggressive state library agency in the form of the Louisiana State Library (known prior to 1946 as the Louisiana Library Commission), (2) capable professional leadership, particularly in the person of Miss Essae M. Culver, executive secretary of the state agency from 1925 to the present time, (3) widespread citizen interest in local libraries, (4) steadily increasing financial support by the state legislature, and (5) a workable plan for library development.

"Demonstration" is the key word in Louisiana's library extension plan. Under this plan, the state agency organizes and largely supports a model library system in a parish for one year. At the end of the demonstration the citizens of the parish vote to tax themselves for the maintenance of the library, which operates thenceforth under a local board. The plan is based on the principle that, once people have a chance to see what good library service is, they will want it badly enough to support it. Working on this basis, the State Library has insured a reasonably high quality of service while progressing steadily in the direction of state-wide coverage.

Since this publication tells only the highlights of the story, students of state library development will have to go elsewhere for the details. Extension workers will be interested in the booklet as an example of public relations material intended to promote wider appreciation of a state library agency's work.

ANDREW J. EATON

Louisiana State University Library
Baton Rouge, Louisiana

Annual Report of the Librarian of Congress for the Fiscal Year Ending June 30, 1949.

Washington: Government Printing Office, 1950. Pp. 234.

As the Library of Congress enters its sesqui-centennial year, it is both an honor and a trial to undertake to review a report of its work in the penultimate year of the landmark period. It is an honor, since every librarian—in fact, every American—can look with pride upon the accomplishments of the national library, and there is no dearth of accomplishments to report. It is a trial because every thoughtful librarian is concerned for the future of the Library of Congress and its status in the minds of our duly elected representatives in Washington, and there are signs in this report which are not the most favorable. In any case, the *Report* is a historical document; it contains elements both noble and base, ideals both visionary and realistic, and philosophy at times lucid and at other times completely murky.

In a previous review¹ it has been indicated that the *Annual Report of the Librarian of Congress* must envisage at least three principal publics. Briefly, these include, first, the members of Congress, to whom the *Report* is addressed; second, the now very considerable group of philanthropic persons and private agencies, together with a number of government agencies, which provide fairly considerable sums of money to the Library of Congress to carry out many programs and projects for which the Congress is never likely to provide; and, third, all librarians, teachers, and students interested in the administration of a large organization, as well as those appointed representatives of the people in our government whose duty it is to insure good management in the various working units of our government. Some idea of the trend of current thinking in the Library of Congress may be deduced from the relative position and extent of parts of the *Report* obviously directed to any one or all of these several publics.

Physically, the *Report* of this year is a small one. Its entire text is represented in less than one hundred and fifty pages. The organization of the materials now follows a consistent and happy pattern. Many years of patient effort have converted the annual report from a formless enumeration of activities by departments (and then by divisions) in alphabetical order

¹ *Library Quarterly*, XIV (1944), 239-45.

into a very readable presentation, with a logical grouping and much synthesis of extensive detail. While the organization is excellent and the report nominally has a single editorship, it still suffers from the unevenness of style wrought by either diffidence or excessive gentleness on the part of the editor in working with his colleagues. A more trenchant editorial policy is to be recommended.

The first part of the present *Report* is a brief eleven pages of introduction. This is obviously the part that is read fully by almost any of those who receive it. Unfortunately, not many can be counted on to go farther. Be that as it may, the Introduction has plainly been given the utmost care in planning and writing, and the first page of the *Report* has such magnificent style and thought that the reviewer may be forgiven a rather long quotation:

As this Report is readied for the press, a sesqui-centennial overtakes the Library of Congress. Merely to have survived for a century and a half is, in and of itself, scarcely worth a casual aside; much less is it proper excuse for self-gratulation, or piously noisy huzzas, or general celebration. Far too frequently, survival implies only a polite indifference, or an indulgence of fortuitous fortune, or a cowardly withdrawal from the struggles which engage the spirit of a time. Neither is endurance necessarily commemorable; it may result from nothing more heroic than a reflex, an aimless instinct for preservation, or the falsest sentimentality. Finally, the intimation of permanence is not always the promise of excellence fulfilled and continuing; there is no persistence comparable to the persistence of error.

But if the Library is, as it is designed to be and as, in the past, it most assuredly has been, a popular institution, popularly supported, administered and sustained; if it is, invisibly perhaps, but nevertheless indivisibly and integrally a part of the intellectual endowment of every citizen; if solely to diffuse, it has scrupulously amassed the recorded knowledge it contains; if it belongs to the experience of its days; if it is sensitive to the expectations of it and applies whatever strength it has to their fulfillment; if learned spuriosity cannot taint, nor curtain, nor embarrass, nor divert, nor betray, nor in any way diminish its steadfast demonstration of the freedoms of inquiry and access and discovery and choice; if its ambitions do not exceed its opportunities for useful service; if it has acquired and exploited and perfected special skills; if it is an active agent as well as an obedient servant of the nobler energies of a people; if it is aware of, and disturbed by, and in rebellion against, its own shortcomings; if performance of duty is its single purpose and its duty, the enrichment of society; if its traditions are not marcescent, but alive, adaptable and approved; if hollow prece-

dent does not exact conformity nor impose requirement; if there is confidence in its maturity; if, through age, it has attained a character, an identity, a realization, "non faciat ea, quae iuvenes; at vero multo maiora et meliora facit" [Cicero: *De Senectute*, vi: 22-23], then the passage of its first one hundred and fifty years may merit some attention.

These two paragraphs mark not only an apex of style but a manifesto which can be read with profit by the administrator and plain worker in any great library or in any great educational institution. How many of us can lay claim to such lofty ideals, such singleness of purpose, such breadth of results? In a pleasant tour de force, the remaining pages of the Introduction give the Library of Congress a personality; and a brief but comprehensive description of the composition and structure of this being provides an easily read and understood picture of the Library's early development and present state. Briefly reviewed are size, investment, plant, acquisitions, the Copyright Office, the catalogs and catalog practice, services to the blind, the divisions of Hispanica, Manuscripts, Maps and Charts, Music, Orientalia, Prints and Photographs, Rare Books, Slavica, the photographic service, and the Law Library.

At this point, having served particularly the majority of its reading public No. 1, members of Congress (and Library administrators either too tired or too lazy to continue the search for pearls), the *Report* names chapter i "The Special Services to Congress." The position and title of this chapter give the key to a plain, realistic philosophy now followed by the administrative officers of the Library of Congress. In the last few years the Library has suffered severe blows because, at times, it could not—indeed, would not—believe the evidence of its own eyes in its contacts with practical politics. The personalities concerned have fought valiantly and unremittingly for what they believe in, and sometimes without a glimmer of hope. Now we have concrete evidence that, first, these ideals have not been sacrificed and, second, new tactics are being employed with apparent success.

It is perfectly natural for all of us to expect some treasure in each of the successive annual reports of the Library of Congress. This catalog of riches began with the "Canons of Selection" in the 1940 *Report* and includes the more recent *The Story Up to Now*. The current report is no exception. Chapter ii, "The Reference Serv-

ices," includes a history of the travels of the Declaration of Independence (pp. 36-54), introduced by a casual reference to the remarkable work of William J. Barrow in the field of "print lifting." The meticulous documentation combined with the superb language of this story gives us a profoundly impressive and moving account, which deserves far wider dissemination than it can have in the *Annual Report*. The remainder of this chapter reveals the enormous breadth of the services now demanded of the Library of Congress, services which most of us are very much aware of in our own libraries.

The third chapter of the *Report*, entitled "Concerts, Exhibits, and Special Events," includes numerous activities which have grown up in the Library of Congress—slowly at first, but lately in ever increasing numbers. The new internationalism of the Library is marked in this section in exhibits ranging in scope from local to national and international. Topics include everything from Ultrafax to poetry awards, from first editions of science literature to political cartoons on presidential elections. The concise account of the controversy over the Bollingen Prize in poetry represents to the reviewer the second important document in this *Annual Report*. The course of this frenzied and protracted literary battle is here reviewed dispassionately and reasonably (pp. 88-94). Time alone will tell where the right lies in the matter, but it is even now obvious that this is one of the important documents of American literary history.

With "The Acquisition of Materials," chapter iv, we enter the field of more difficult materials and a much more pedestrian account. Nonetheless, librarians concerned with problems of acquisitions will find much of interest in this chapter. The Library of Congress has broadened its scope of activities within the limitations of its personnel and funds, and its extended activities affect every research library in the country. New methods of comprehensive acquisition are described; problems of international booktrade are discussed; new programs in nonbook materials are reported; and three major recent or current working projects are here recorded for posterity: the Cooperative Acquisitions Project, the Documents Expediting Project, and the United States Book Exchange, Inc.

A chapter of most vital interest to library

administrators today is the fifth, "The Organization of the Collections." It is unfortunate that the material of this chapter does not lend itself readily to the soaring cadences typical of the first few chapters, for the subject content of this chapter is of more vital interest to many in our field than anything else the Library of Congress does. Be that as it may, there are here recorded not only the progress (slow as it may seem to some of us) of the several divisions of the Processing Department but also activities in special fields which have far-reaching effects: co-operative cataloging, classification schedules, card distribution, the Cumulative Catalog, the union catalogs, the National Union Catalog. One finds here also a brief account of Ralph Ellsworth's evanescent proposals for centralized cataloging and the promise of Robert Downs's proposed survey of the Union Catalog. The chapter rewards persistent readers with a dogged and faithful account of hard work, devotion to fundamental tenets of librarianship, and general hopelessness. The search for the answers is unceasing, but the answers are not here.

Chapter vi is notable chiefly for the accounting of new methods put into practice by the personnel office of the Library, and the following chapter, on the Copyright Office, is of only passing interest to most readers. The appendices, which follow it, provide the necessary documentation for the preceding chapters. There is little point in commenting on the staggering volume of publishing, the number of exhibits, the extensive concert programs, and the many other operations detailed in the appendices. All statistics of the Library of Congress are staggering to most of us. Moreover, we are all aware of the deceptions of figures, and any of them can be contradicted. Last but not least, of course, is an extremely detailed Index, over thirteen pages long.

To summarize, the physical and mechanical aspects of this *Annual Report* are again tipping the balance against the historical and philosophical aspects found in it, and from the reviewer's point of view this is unfortunate. It is understandable, to be sure, that every year cannot see equal or greater progress in each field, but it can be arranged that whatever the Library has to say should be given every advantage of the felicitous gift of language evident in the first and second chapters. This is the only criticism of the *Report* that this reviewer wishes

to make. The content is sound and reliable; the organization of materials is logical; the report contains hidden treasures which amply reward the careful reader; but the literary style grows weaker and weaker from the third chapter on. The gift of style is given to few; the Library of Congress has one of the few; let him be more trenchant in his editing in the future.

JERROLD ORNE

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A Checklist of American Copies of "Short-Title Catalogue" Books. Compiled by WILLIAM WARNER BISHOP. 2d ed. ("University of Michigan General Library Publications," No. 6.) Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1950. Pp. xxi+203. \$2.50. (Litho-printed.)

The first edition of Bishop's *Checklist* was published in 1944 and was reviewed in the October, 1945, issue of the *Library Quarterly* (XV, 352-54). During the intervening years, its compiler has been revising the *Checklist*, and we find it now containing entries from a dozen or more libraries not included in the first edition. The migration of early English books to America during the war and postwar years has been very active; consequently, the number of copies listed is noticeably larger, and new titles, editions, and issues are indicated. The "Additions" section, consisting chiefly of titles apparently not in the *STC*, is nearly twice as large as that in the first edition. And this section has been purged of many of the editions, issues, and parts of books which in the first edition of the *Checklist* masqueraded as unnoted titles. The items in the "Additions," however, are still unnumbered and consequently are not easily cited.

The second edition of Bishop's *Checklist* shows a distinct advance in accuracy and completeness. By placing almost all the notes at the bottoms of the pages, greater compactness has been achieved: 203 pages of this edition carry more material than did 250 pages of the first edition. In his efforts to reduce the bulk of the book the compiler has omitted almost all the introductory matter and for it has referred the user to the Introduction in the first edition. The first edition, however, in most libraries has already been sent to the stacks, and the bibliographically untutored reader—of whom, alas,

there are many—who comes upon a copy of the latest edition of the *Checklist* in a library's reference collection will find nothing in the book plainly to let him know that the numbers which precede the symbols for libraries are those of A. W. Pollard and G. R. Redgrave's *A Short-Title Catalogue of Books Printed in England, Scotland & Ireland and of English Books Printed Abroad, 1475-1640* (London: Bibliographical Society, 1926).

Dr. Bishop is to be congratulated on having been able to make an invaluable reference work even more useful. And Edwards Brothers are to be commended on an excellent job of litho-printing.

EDWIN ELIOTT WILLOUGHBY

Folger Shakespeare Library

Principles of Bibliographical Description. By FREDSON BOWERS. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1949. Pp. xvii + 505. \$10.00.

Mr. Bowers' unique service to bibliography has been to develop and publicize the discoveries of other scholars. Thus his work with headlines carried to the study of all early printed books a technique first worked out in detail in E. E. Willoughby's classic history of the printing of the Shakespeare first folio, and his studies of proofing in early print shops have been developed from W. W. Greg's theory of the proofing of the *Pied Bull Lear*. So, in the present book, Bowers elaborates upon the systems of bibliographical description first set forth by R. B. McKerrow and Greg.

The book is concerned only with description in analytical bibliographies rather than with description in catalogs or check lists. Bowers feels that the principles which he advocates are based on current practice, and he quite properly urges that, although he treats chiefly of English and American books, the rules adequate for such books should serve just as well for other printed books.

The only entirely original part of the book is that dealing with the definition of "edition," "issue," and "state." The conventional view has long been that these distinctions should be based on easily recognized physical differences between the variant forms in which the same book may appear and that strict uniformity did not greatly matter. Bowers, however, feels that

the history of the printing of a particular variant, rather than its physical characteristics, should decide its classification, and he urges that strict uniformity is necessary for reference purposes and as a help to further bibliographical study of the variant.

The chief difficulty with these novel definitions is that they are hard to apply. Bowers fills over a hundred pages with detailed discussion and intricate distinctions. Any one of five conditions may result in a variant state; any one of three in a reissue; any one of another three in a separate issue; and any one of four in an edition. Many of these fifteen conditions are subdivided; the first, for instance, has five subclasses. Also involved are Bowers' concepts of "temporality" and "ideal copy" and the modifications which he considers necessary for classification of nineteenth- and twentieth-century books.

All this would not be so bad, perhaps, if each class and subclass were sharply separated and readily recognizable and if there were no more classes than Bowers describes. Such, of course, is not the case. The history of the printing of any one book differs from that of any other book and may easily involve situations not accounted for even in Bowers' lengthy discussion; indeed, he professes to list only the major classes (see pp. 30, 46, and elsewhere).

The need for uniformity may also be questioned. When the term "issue," for instance, appears in a bibliography or a catalog, it is followed immediately by a statement of precisely how the variant to which it applies differs from other forms of the book. A scholar begins study of that variant not with the word "issue" but with the elements of variation. Moreover, if the word "issue" had been applied as Bowers would like, it would not help in further bibliographical study of the variant, because the bibliographer would have to solve all possible problems before he could apply the term, and then no further bibliographical study would be needed.

The plain fact, of course, is that an infinitely greater number of books are listed in catalogs than are described in bibliographies. As a result, there is much more cross-reference between catalogs and catalogs, or between catalogs and bibliographies, than between bibliographies and other bibliographies. If uniformity is necessary, it will be useful and, indeed, possible only if it depends on the definitions currently used by catalogers as well as by bibliographers—i.e.,

distinctions based on easily recognized physical differences between variants.

Bowers champions quasi-facsimile transcriptions of titles. There may be some disagreement with his contention that such a transcription is better than a photographic reproduction. More serious, however, is what seems to be a conflict between his approach to transcription and his approach to classification. Transcription, he argues, should be as full as possible because "what escapes one generation as bibliographical evidence may be found crucial in the next," and, in any event, "a bibliographer may not be aware" of all variant copies of his book (p. 138, n. 6). Quasi-facsimile transcription will make it easy for the reader to detect variants which the bibliographer missed.

But, earlier, Bowers felt that bibliographical catalogs "differ from a true bibliography in that they do not pretend to offer the last word on any book described" (p. 4), because a descriptive bibliography "should offer a definitive account of a book" (p. 5). Moreover, as noted above, he feels that the classification of the various editions, issues, and states of a book should reflect the history of the printing of that book. It seems rather unlikely that the "last word" on any book and the history of its printing can be written unless the bibliographer has examined all possible variants. But, if he has examined all variants, then, surely, transcription can be drastically cut and the significant features of each variant briefly stated in notes on the book. One very good bibliography of recent years (T. F. Currier's *Whittier*) does not even indicate line endings. Bowers himself suggests that, if ligatures are the important distinction between two variant titles, "the features may certainly be described in the note to the variant setting" (p. 163).

A shorthand formula of collation which achieves brevity by using arbitrary symbols wins Bowers' praise. In order to show its advantages, he constructs two statements of collation and a note of reference to each, such as he imagines would be used by someone unacquainted with or opposed to his formula, and then he contrasts them with his own shorthand collation and note of reference (p. 29). His first imagined longhand collation need not concern us, because it uses the phrase "4 leaves" to describe an unsigned gathering; it is unlikely that any careful bibliographer would use such a phrase, because it cannot show which leaves are conjugate. His

second imagined longhand collation and the reference to it are as follows:

Collation.—4^o: [1^a A⁴ (A⁴ is a cancel)—H⁴ [1^a I—X⁴ Y³ (Y⁴ missing, used to print cancel leaf A⁴).

Reference.—The title-page on [1^a of the preliminary gathering is identical except for the imprint with that on [1^a following gathering II; cancel A⁴ contains a longer errata list than the errata list on the original A⁴ leaf. The errata on cancel A⁴ include readings from signatures B through X, whereas the list on the original A⁴ was confined to signatures B through H.

The section describing gatherings A–H should, of course, read "A⁴ (A⁴ is a cancel) B–H⁴." This curious typographical error occurs in both imagined longhand formulas. Bowers properly calls this description "loquacious," but it may be that the loquacity is not entirely the fault of the imagined longhand bibliographer. Perhaps that individual might have preferred to describe the book somewhat as follows:

Collation.—4^o: [A]¹ A⁴ (A⁴ is a cancel) B–H⁴ [I]² I–X⁴ Y³ (Y⁴ used to print cancel A⁴).

Reference.—The title on [A]¹ is identical except for imprint with that on [I]¹. Cancel A⁴ errata list applies to B–X; that on original A⁴ applied only to B–H.

Bowers, it should be noted, has not been unfair to his imagined opponent, for he offers his own shorthand collation and reference to it in the following terms:

Collation.—4^o: π^4 A⁴ (\pm A⁴ [= Y⁴]) B–H⁴ χ^4 I–X⁴ Y⁴ (– Y⁴).

Reference.—The title-page on π^1 is identical except for the imprint with that on χ^1 ; leaf A (A⁴) contains a longer errata list than did A⁴; the errata on A (A⁴) include readings from B–X, whereas the list on A⁴ was confined to B–H.

Bowers' shorthand collation is concise enough, but the reference to it may be condensed to read:

The title on π^1 is identical except for imprint with that on χ^1 ; A (A⁴) errata list applies to B–X; that on A⁴ applied only to B–H.

Bowers urges the "necessity to reduce as much description as possible to formulas, since concision is usually of the utmost importance" (p. 26), but apparently he does not feel that concision is quite so necessary in references to collation statements.

If these statements of collation and the references to them are analyzed in terms of the number of characters (i.e., signs or letters) re-

quired for each, the results may be summarized as follows:

Bowers' imagined longhand . . .	Collation, 69 (i.e., 70 if the omitted B is counted)
	Reference, 296
Substitute imagined longhand . . .	Collation, 60
	Reference, 120
Bowers' shorthand	Collation, 35
	Reference, 179
Substitute shorthand	Collation, 35
	Reference, 106

The number of characters required by the substitute imagined longhand reference is much less than that of Bowers' imagined longhand and even less than Bowers' shorthand. It is almost as low as the number of characters required for substitute shorthand reference.

The number of characters required for shorthand collation is, indeed, smaller than that of either imagined longhand.

It may be possible to estimate—quite roughly, of course—the actual saving if a bibliographer were to use Bowers' shorthand for his statements of collation. In Bowers' book there are about sixty characters to a line and forty lines to the page (in terms of the type used for the text). Suppose that a descriptive bibliography using Bowers' shorthand were to be prepared for the 1,340 entries in Woodward and McManaway's *Check List of English Plays 1641-1700* (1945) and that it could be published in the same format as Bowers' book, using an average of one page per entry (probably it would require more than one page). This would mean, of course, 1,340 pages. The shorthand collation in Bowers' illustration would fill slightly more than one-half line (thirty-five characters), while the substitute imagined longhand collation would fill one line (sixty characters). If we assume that in this proposed bibliography the shorthand collation for each entry would be one line or less, then the substitute longhand collation would be two lines or less. If it were decided to use the substitute longhand collations instead of the shorthand, it would require one extra line for each entry—that is, thirty-four extra pages, counting forty lines to the page. The bibliography would thus be only slightly more than 2.5 per cent longer than in shorthand.

Even so, it might cost less to publish the more lengthy longhand bibliography. The Princeton University Press announcement of Bowers' book on October 3, 1949, spoke of "the mechanical job of composition involving special

type and other unusual problems." Such a job is obviously more expensive than work involving fewer shorthand symbols.

Reference to the collation statement would, of course, vary with each entry, but there does not seem to be a great deal to choose between the substitute imagined longhand reference (120) and the substitute shorthand (106). Bowers' shorthand reference (179) may be omitted from consideration, because it is practically one whole line longer than the substitute imagined longhand reference.

So the space required by a shorthand bibliographer is, indeed, less—but only slightly less—than that used by a longhand bibliographer. The ease of understanding, however, is greatly decreased. If brevity is the sole consideration, bibliographers might do well to write in Latin.

Ease of understanding, however, is fundamental. "True bibliography," writes Bowers, "is the bridge to textual, which is to say literary, criticism" (p. 9), and he cites Greg and L. C. Wroth to support the idea. Elsewhere he suggests that "strictly scientific bibliographers often unduly limit the more general value of their work to too few classes of readers," and he notes with approval Wroth's idea that it is the duty of the bibliographer to "display the significance of his wares" to the historian (p. 34). "Display," however, would seem to call for simple, everyday language. It seems doubtful that the average historian or even the average student of literature understands Bowers' intricate terminology and shorthand collation.

Nor is it probable, as Bowers suggests (p. 28 and elsewhere), that, if all bibliographers were to insist on using Bowers' system, their readers would learn it of necessity. Long ago, catalogers worked out a detailed and intricate scheme for transcribing titles and noting pagination, and they followed it religiously for some forty years. But few indeed were the library users who ever really understood the details of transcription and pagination on catalog cards.

Bowers, however, takes a dim view of catalogers; indeed, he feels that their "loose standards" often result in "mere catch-alls of undigested raw material" and "may not require examination of a book by a person competent to decide between a press-corrected and a cancellans title-page" (see p. 40 and elsewhere). Apparently, he fails to understand the distinction between the cataloger and the bibliographer. The cataloger, among other things, describes

books as physical entities; and to that extent he (or she!), no less than the bibliographer, performs a bibliographical service. Bibliography, after all, is "the study of books as material objects" (W. W. Greg, *Studies in Retrospect* [1945], p. 24). The bibliographer, on the other hand, describes and interprets books as material objects. It would be interesting to know how many of the examples of printing history which crowd Bowers' pages are the result of studies undertaken only because some cataloger had noted and described an unusual feature in a book which he had not himself the time to analyze.

It is, moreover, not impossible that the fate of principles of bibliographical description may be that of rules for cataloging. Once catalogers prepared detailed cards by intricate rules. But cataloging costs and the backlog of uncataloged material mounted so rapidly that catalogers had to simplify rules and abbreviate entries, retaining only that which experience proved to be really useful. The administrators of the grants-in-aid and fellowships upon which bibliographers must generally depend for funds may come to feel that they, no less than the administrators of libraries which serve the public, have a social responsibility to sponsor only projects which are completely and efficiently useful. Expense may cause any elaborate system of bibliographical description to collapse of its own weight.

PAUL S. DUNKIN

Folger Shakespeare Library

Standards of Bibliographical Description. By CURT F. BÜHLER, JAMES G. McMANAWAY, and LAWRENCE C. WROTH. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1949. Pp. viii + 120. \$2.50.

The University of Pennsylvania, by a happy adaptation of the Rosenbach Fellowship in Bibliography, was able in 1947 to invite three distinguished bibliographers to consider the matter of uniformity or standardization in bibliographical description. To the men of the European and English Renaissance such a topic would perhaps never have occurred as being valid or important; the stimulus of new ideas was too pressing. But our generation, while it has had to cope with relativity and nuclear fission in physics, levitation in mechanics, Freudianism in psychology and mores, and Keynesianism in finance, has nevertheless insisted on

definition of terms in all fields: sociology, criticism, politics, education, librarianship, and bibliography. The need for definition is not entirely due to the *Zeitgeist*, but it is at least a normal reflection of any confusion, whether recognized or only vaguely felt.

The earliest bibliographers seem not to have been concerned with standards of description. The excitement of discovering lost books and manuscripts was sufficient in itself, and the bibliographer wanted chiefly to tell his readers he had found them; his awareness that other copies might have an altered imprint or a new Preface could be set forth in a footnote, but such an indication was a refinement of information, not of description. Even the great Hain in 1826, when, to the despair of all but his most devoted users, he abbreviated beyond all valid excuse, was attempting to save space, not to achieve a standardized description in shorthand. Proctor, likewise, in his great studies seems to have been concerned with regularizing or standardizing his knowledge, not his methods of description. (The distinction may seem shadowy, but it does have substance.)

McKerrow's great book is not much concerned with standardized descriptions. In its first form in 1914 it was "Notes on Bibliographical Evidence for Literary Students," clearly intended to help in the acquisition of bibliographical knowledge and its use in the interpretation of literary problems. This was something quite different from a librarian's method of standardized description, and McKerrow has never been much used by librarians. When McKerrow revised his "Notes" in 1927 for his *Introduction to Bibliography*, Part II (the description of books) was greatly expanded; possibly he was urged by Madan and Greg to propose standard formulas. But McKerrow wisely limited himself to simple and sensible examples which served to suggest his method, and he made no attempt to establish universal and inflexible formulas. Since 1927 Greg, who never agreed completely with McKerrow and Pollard, has been urging and demonstrating standardized formulas, and it is of some interest that the important work of Greg's leading American disciple, Fredson T. Bowers, was consulted in manuscript by two of the authors whose lectures are included in the present book. The theory of standardized formulas, therefore, while it is of concern to incunabulists and all bibliographers, is closely associated in the English-speaking world with Greg.

The first and longest lecture, by Dr. Bühler, is possibly the most stimulating and satisfying. I do not know whether those who heard him deliver it were convinced, but, when one studies it with its extraordinary amplitude of illustration and documentation, it is a splendid achievement. His story is related with humor and with conviction: the *Gesamtkatalog's* form is generally sound, although he would like a few modifications; recording the colophon first (as proposed by Duff and Madan) is impractical and may be misleading; Greg's formulary is unsuitable to incunabula and has its own illogicalities. Such a summary can convey no hint of the excellence of Bühler's argument, but I trust it does no violence to his position.

One does not need to agree with every sentence to accept the lecture as sound common sense logically presented and carefully documented. (1) I would be willing to argue that Dr. Bühler accepts too easily the *Gesamtkatalog's* quasi-facsimile transcriptions, which seem to me both an awkward relic of the days before cheap photography and an unenlightened failure to recognize that such transcriptions are needed only in special circumstances. If the Morgan's Diego Ramirez remains unique, the quasi-facsimile transcription has no utility and could be replaced by a somewhat detailed contents note; but if another copy should appear, photography would be needed to discover any suspected variations. Quasi-facsimile, in other words, is fundamentally misleading, as Bühler recognizes on page 22, where he labels the reproduction of gothic as gothic "pedantic nonsense." (2) I disapprove of his remark (p. 18) that "format does not help to identify the edition, except possibly as to size." It happens that the six Bibles he mentions are all in folio; but had one or more been in quarto, the format would be the quickest and easiest way to differentiate them, to that extent, and it is frequently convenient to know immediately that a particular edition is one of two in quarto, not merely one of six in various formats. Bühler's note on this passage adds that format may be misleading as to size; this is true enough in fact, but not precisely as he presents it. When half-sheets of royal paper are printed as if folios, one obtains not "quartos the size of folios" but royal quartos in half-sheets. The royal quarto is as large as a pot folio, of course, but the usefulness of format in identification is not therefore destroyed. The answer to this passage must be, I think, McKerrow's insistence that the original sheet is the

base in all study of format and folding. (3) I see little advantage in using Arabic numerals instead of letters to record in brackets the quires of an unsigned book. American printers did revive the practice of some early printers by using numerals for signatures. But the great tradition of printing (especially English) has been right in avoiding any possible confusion: the numerals are too useful for other purposes. At this point only does Bühler seem implicitly to be accepting the Greg-Bowers fallacy of confusing mathematical statements of actions and reactions (the formulas of algebra and of natural science) with abbreviated descriptions of static bookish appearance.

In the second lecture, Dr. McManaway takes his stand with the Greg-Bowers school in favor of uniformity of nomenclature and mathematical preciseness of description; indeed, as if to make the parallel explicit, he ends with the prophecy that, as soon as a comprehensive treatise has been published and adopted, "we shall all speak the same bibliographic language, more or less as scientists speak the same mathematical language." But he himself makes no attempt to define such methods, and the most interesting feature of his lecture is his outline of what has been done to apply to textual studies specialized knowledge of typography, paper manufacture, binding, contemporary type-facsimiles, reprints from standing type, and headlines—all in search of the "ideal copy."

In the third lecture, Dr. Wroth first summarizes the great names in the bibliographic history of early Americana, from Pinelo to Wagner and Holmes. On page 104 he presents an admirable scheme for an intermediate type of description between short-title lists and full-dress bibliographies: I fail to see in this scheme why the Roman numerals of the date should be preserved. Then he pleads in his always felicitous prose for literary historiography that proceeds beyond the bare bones of physical description; in other words, for the type of bibliography that Greg, who used to try to exclude it from his definition, has gradually been forced to welcome within the fold.

Wroth ends with a reflection that could well be extended from early Americana to all fields of bibliography: many of the minutiae of detailed bibliographic description are found to have so little importance that the time spent could have been better employed in historiography. Other bibliographers will reply that nobody can tell in advance how important certain

minutiae may prove to be. But possibly the task most overlooked by some bibliographers in every field is the discrimination among methods to determine what will be most fruitful in a specific problem. Even our national library has begun to learn that not all books require for their cataloging identical standards of description.

Careful proofreading adds to the attractiveness of this well-designed volume. And, since it is a volume of theory, not primarily of reference, the lack of an index is perhaps endurable. John Alden contributes a brief but useful editorial introduction on the purpose of the series.

A. T. HAZEN

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The Year's Work in Librarianship, Vol. XII: 1939-45. Edited by J. H. P. PAFFORD. London: Library Association, 1949. Pp. 452. 30s.; 22s. 6d. to members of the Association.

The Year's Work in Librarianship, Vol. XIII: 1946. Edited by J. H. P. PAFFORD. London: Library Association, 1949. Pp. 221. 21s.; 16s. 6d. to members.

After a lapse of ten years *The Year's Work in Librarianship* renews its appearance with these two volumes. In general structure they closely resemble the earlier issues; there are some new names attached to individual chapters; one chapter, "Archives," has been omitted, and a new one, "Bibliography: Subject," added. Also, in place of Dr. Arundell Esdaile, Mr. J. H. P. Pafford now serves as general editor.

This series by its title suggests comparison with the well-known *Year's Work in English Studies*, but there the similarity ends. Whereas the *English Studies* represents a synthesis of important scholarship in English literature, the library volumes have nothing like such scholarship on which to base their syntheses. Instead, therefore, except for the chapter "Historical Bibliography," the several chapters merely report what seemed to their compilers to be significant developments in the field as reported in library literature, with little further evaluation of any kind. This is shown quite clearly in Irwin's chapters covering "Professional Education." In the 1939-45 volume he reports the nature of the revised syllabus of the Library Association and comments briefly on what the professional literature has reported concerning education for librarianship. In the later volume he brings together brief comments on 1946 de-

velopments in Great Britain and elsewhere. At best, these chapters provide bibliographical references for the interested reader to seek further. They stand in sharp contrast to the lively and thoughtful contributions to education for librarianship which Irwin has elsewhere provided.

This contrast is evident through *The Year's Work*. If any qualitative judgment at all has been made, it lies in the decision to include certain articles for mention and to exclude others; the mention is consistently brief, at times almost cryptic, and, if anyone wants to know what has been written on a given subject, he is well advised to repair directly to the original presentation. These volumes, of course, will facilitate his finding the originals and thus serve very well as a guide. But, clearly, this is not the major function of these publications. In fact, they are designed to make recourse to the original documents unnecessary, unless one is interested in delving more deeply into the topic reported.

In examining these two volumes together, one is left with the impression of considerable repetitiousness in the earlier one and of rather thin fare in the later. The McCollin report of 1942, for example, is mentioned in the chapters on "Urban Libraries," "County and Rural Libraries," "Library Co-operation," "Professional Education," and "Library Practice," though in fairness it must be said that each reference to this report calls attention to one or more specific aspects of it. On the whole, I believe the longer report is better than the annual; frankly, there does not seem to be enough significant literature published every year to warrant abstracting and summarizing it. Perhaps a volume every three years or so would be the preferred solution. But, taking the series as it stands, one must surely agree with its present editor that "it is an essential source book for study of practically all phases of librarianship and a record of the history of our profession since 1927 which has no counterpart."

LEON CARNOVSKY

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The Typographic Arts. By STANLEY MORISON. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1950. Pp. 106. \$3.50.

The latest book by that eminent scholar of typography and calligraphy, Stanley Morison, is not quite his most recent work, but it is cer-

tainly one of the most delightful and instructive of the many scholarly books which have come from his pen. This slim volume is beautifully printed and is provided with thirty-two specially selected plates to illustrate the points which the author discusses.

The text of the volume under review consists of two lectures which Morison delivered before the Royal College of Art in Edinburgh (February 17, 1944) and before the British Academy in London (November 17, 1937), respectively. Though both essays have been printed before (the first one without pictorial illustrations), some of the plates in the present volume are new, and the Appendix has been brought up to date. It was indeed a happy thought which led the publishers to present these two closely related essays within the covers of a single volume.

The first essay, entitled "The Typographic Arts," affords a compact historical survey of printing. The account shows that the social conditions of Tudor and Stuart England brought about the debasement in the art between 1543 and 1662 and that the Great Fire of 1666 provided the stimulus for a revival of British craftsmanship, including typography. The parallel revival of taste in collecting and the development of an interest in books as furniture as well as reading matter are also discussed. An appraisal of William Morris' achievement as a designer and an interpretation of his doctrines lead directly to an examination of Morison's own hopes for the future of typography.

The second lecture, "The Art of Printing," is one in which the librarian and bibliographer are likely to be more specifically interested. In it Morison discusses the other arts and crafts besides calligraphy which have influenced the art of printing. He insists—and quite rightly—that printing is a department of engraving and that the graver wielded a more powerful influence upon type-design than did the calligrapher. The natural corollary to this is Morison's desire that more scholarship be devoted to the paleography of inscriptions than has hitherto been accorded to this discipline. He points out the possibility (p. 67) that "certain kinds of gothic printing owe more to metal and stone workers, and less to scribes, than we are at present inclined to admit."

Morison's own belief as to the function of the art of printing may best be set forth by citing the following:

The first duty of printing is to distribute, as widely and as cheaply as possible, the works of all

those who write for the education, information, and recreation of the public in books, newspapers, and the rest. Therefore, if photography will enable printing more eminently to fulfill this duty to society, we must resist any temptation to regard it as essentially unworthy of consideration. . . . When the text is effectively articulated, and the process effectively exploited in accordance with specific requirements of illustration and multiplication, the product may please the understanding eye [pp. 81-82].

Printing is not, then, a luxury—though it need not, for this reason, be merely "un-ugly."

One minor historical slip requires correction. On page 16 one finds the note: "Printing was established in Scotland, that is to say in this city of Edinburgh, forty-one years after its first appearance in Mainz, and seventeen years after its introduction into Westminster." This would place the first Scottish printing in the year 1493/4, some fourteen years before the usually accepted date. The first printers in Scotland (Walter Chepman and Andrew Myllar) received a license to print from King James IV on September 15, 1507, and the first book generally credited to them is the *Maying and Desport of Chaucer* of the following April. For those interested in scholarly details, this slight slip is more than amply compensated for by the information presented in note 3 of the Appendix. Here, in six closely packed pages, Mr. Morison has listed a wealth of detail concerning the relationship between Gothic script and type and has enumerated the chief bibliographical studies in this field, which lie scattered in dozens of different publications. Would that all footnotes were so compact, so precise, so informative—and so necessary!

CURT F. BÜHLER

Pierpont Morgan Library
New York City

The Anatomy of Bibliomania. By HOLBROOK JACKSON. New York: Farrar, Straus, & Co., 1950. Pp. 668. \$7.50.

One of the most curious monuments of bibliophily, a work that this year attains its majority, has now become generally available for the first time. *The Anatomy of Bibliomania*, a fantastic and erudite labor of love that diverted the odd hours and years of the late Holbrook Jackson, appeared first (and quite understandably) in a limited edition. Farrar, Straus have now reissued it in a handsome edition with excellent typography, paper, and binding, at a bibliomaniac's list price.

Jackson's conception was as simple as it was staggering. Robert Burton's masterpiece, *The Anatomy of Melancholy*, with its purposefully meandering investigation of the varieties of melancholy or madness, ever prepared to desert its theme for an engaging and curious digression, making its brilliant style out of a mosaic of quotations from classical and modern authors, was palpably the only model to be followed. No other scheme could so readily have encompassed the enormous range of Jackson's reading and interests; a more formal plan would, doubtless, have excluded the agreeable "Digression of Dummy Books" in Part VII, to mention an egregious example. The repetitiousness of the work might have been diminished by a stricter plan of classification; thus the discussion of the special delights afforded the bibliomaniac by each of the five senses (Part XXXI, "The Five Ports of Book-Love") has been largely anticipated in Parts I-XXX. But such objections are patently inappropriate. This is a definitive, but hardly a systematic, treatment of bibliomania. If one needs to cite authority for Jackson's procedure, there is always Burton himself, whose practice permits an imitator all manner of license.

The thirty-two parts of which the *Anatomy* is composed range in subject matter from morphology and dimensions of books (conclusion: "Good bookmen are at one whether they chew over a little book or browse at large over a big one" [p. 49]) to the question of "How Bookmen Conquer Time and Space" (with special studies of reading on a journey, at mealtimes, and in bed), the bookworm and his depredations (see sec. 5 of Part XX for the introduction of the bookworm to America), and "Grangeritis" (the mania for extra-illustration, which is categorically condemned). And all librarians must join in praise of Part XVI, "Libraries and the Care of Books." They should also read, although some pain will be mingled with their pleasure, Part XVII, "Borrowers, Biblioklepts, and Bestowers."

Those who know Jackson's book only by reputation may have fallen into the error of supposing the *Anatomy* to deal largely with books as physical objects. The author is, to be sure, characteristically learned about bindings; and he has much odd information about the myriad ways in which books come to be discovered, lost, and destroyed. But he is concerned primarily with content: Part VI, "Of

the Reading of Books," and Part XIII, "The Influence of Books," are eloquent statements of the delights of reading; and, although Jackson has many soft spots in his heart for all the aberrations of the bibliomaniac, his Part XXVI, "Do Bibliomaniacs Read Their Books?" strongly hints that the true bookman (although not necessarily the bibliomaniac) buys his books in order to read them.

So attractive a book as the *Anatomy* deserves somewhat better proofreading than it has had. Two oddities appear on consecutive pages: On page 136 one may read about Migne's *Complete Course in Petrology*, which sounds like geology rather than theology; and on page 137 we find a reference to Mather's *Magnolia*, surely a tenderer blossom than Cotton's. Jackson cannot be held accountable for such slips, but it was beyond question he who made a diverting story doubly ludicrous by misplacing a clause: "The French astronomical writer, Camille Flammarion, once complimented a handsome countess who possessed beautiful shoulders on the charm of her skin. When she died she made arrangements for the skin on her back and shoulders to be tanned and sent to Flammarion in memory of his admiration for its recent wearer" (p. 405). And if Jackson had lived to revise the *Anatomy*, he, who had nothing but contempt for dishonest bookmen, might have modified the encomiastic tone of such remarks as the following on the subject of the late and notorious Thomas J. Wise: "T. J. Wise, in our own time, is a notable example of the complete hunter of books. He combines the maximum of skill in pursuit with the maximum of bibliographical interest in possession" (p. 447). In the light of the revelations of Carter and Pollard, such a eulogy becomes ironic in the extreme.

MILTON CRANE

University of Chicago

The Place of the Library in a University: A Conference Held at Harvard University, 30-31 March, 1949. Cambridge: Harvard University Library, 1950. Pp. 72. \$2.00.

The papers comprising this volume were presented in the Lamont Library, Harvard's new undergraduate library, as part of the exercises celebrating completion of the building. Since Harvard is the first institution to erect a separate building to serve undergraduates, the set-

ting was a particularly appropriate one for a re-examination of the place of the library in the university.

Four of the papers strengthen the library's claim to its generally conceded location "at the heart of the university": Dixon Wecter on "General Reading in a University Library"; Ernest Hatch Wilkins on "The University Library and Scholarship"; Zechariah Chafee, Jr., on "The Library and the Professional School"; and William Alexander Jackson on "The Importance of Rare Books and Manuscripts in a University Library."

Wecter recommends increasing the opportunities for students to discover books which personal initiative and intellectual curiosity might lead them to read. Library planners of yesteryear expected the reader to adapt himself to the library. Wecter would adapt the library to the student and reduce obstacles between him and a multitude of books. "Self-discovery among books in student days," he says, "is the most reliable specific against that torpor ready to assert itself when scholastic compulsions cease. Such reading is the only habit that stands much chance of survival into maturity as professional pressures force the college man deeper and deeper into grooves of preoccupation."

Casebooks, texts, and journals are not enough for the faculty and students of professional schools. Professor Chafee, of the Harvard Law School, describes as equally essential books which are "instruments of the knowledge of human beings." He believes that a professional man's reading outside his special field—in poetry, biography, drama, philosophy—may be all that sustains him in an hour of critical need. The professional school ought, therefore, to be close enough to the general library to encourage its students and faculty to use it for general reading.

The librarian of the Houghton Library of Rare Books at Harvard looks upon rare books and manuscripts as indispensable in the research library if humanistic scholarship is to remain sound. The disciplinary tradition in the humanities is as exacting as in the sciences; but, without resources for training in such areas as epigraphy, paleography and textual criticism, scholars are seriously handicapped.

The other papers are devoted to problems of size, growth, and cost and to the future of academic libraries. Keyes Metcalf, director of the Harvard library, describes how the largest university library in the country has solved its

building needs and how it proposes to meet its problems of acquisition, cataloging, public services, and finance.

In order to hold within reasonable bounds the growth of book collections in universities, Coney, of California, prescribes specialization in acquisition and a series of regional depository libraries. McKeon, of Amherst, recommends that college libraries control their growth by discarding freely and by co-operation in regional storage warehouses.

Chancellor Branscomb, of Vanderbilt, hopes that college students can be encouraged to buy more books and that the bookstore may become an important agency on the campus. The college library can then reduce its rate of growth and return to its original purpose—to supplement the student's own collection, introduce him to the best of the world's literature, and provide him with reference tools.

The range of subjects covered in these papers and the number of problems examined indicate how complex an organization the academic library has become. Three of the contributors, as a matter of fact, alluded to the need of able leadership and lamented the dearth of it among the younger men and women in the profession. They label this lack a high-priority problem of librarianship.

The volume contains little that will be new to readers, but it brings together an interesting body of opinion on the place of the library in the university. These papers, incidentally, have been published in several recent numbers of the *Harvard Library Bulletin*. The informal talk by John H. Finley, Jr., on "The Library and the Undergraduate," which rounded out the conference program, unfortunately was not available for publication in either place.

BENJAMIN E. POWELL

Duke University Library

Festschrift Karl Schwarber: Beiträge zur schweizerischen Bibliotheks-, Buch- und Gelehrten-geschichte, zum 60. Geburtstag am 22. November 1940 dargebracht. Basle: Benno Schwabe & Co. Verlag, 1940. Pp. 315. Sw. fr. 18.

The sixtieth birthday of Dr. Karl Schwarber, eminent Swiss scholar and library administrator, gave rise to an official celebration and the *Festschrift Karl Schwarber*. This *Festschrift* is a collection of seventeen learned and professional

articles, fourteen in German and three in French. The significance of the articles, all of which were contributed by scholars on the staffs of the University of Basle Library (hereafter "UBL") and other Swiss libraries, probably lies in their catholicity, for in many instances they transcend the interests of the professional librarian. There are items of valuable information for students of a variety of subjects, such as art, genealogy, history, journalism, literature, mathematics, medicine, music, paleography, philology, and theology. Several of the articles are here selected for comment.

Leo Altermatt describes one of the prize rarities in the Zentralbibliothek Solothurn, the *von Staatsche Historienbibel*. This pre-Luther Bible, the gift of the humanist and city scribe of Solothurn, Hans Jakob von Staal (1530-1615), is beautifully illustrated with seventy-one miniatures by an unknown author. It also has textual interest, since it is not based on the Vulgate exclusively, and linguistic characteristics suggestive of origination in Alemannic territory. This article introduces the *Historienbibel* to an extensive circle of scholars.

The research of Max Burckhardt adds something definitely new to the biography of Jacob Burckhardt, the journalist, scholar, and famed spokesman of history dealing with the progress of civilization and culture. Heretofore unknown newspaper reports by Jacob Burckhardt have yielded this picture of his three study expeditions to Rome, the last extending from March, 1853, to the following April and resulting in the first draft of *Cicerone* and fifty sketches.

The investigation by Fritz Hübner captioned "*Die editio princeps des Corpus Historiae Byzantinae*" seeks to reveal the hardships of the sixteenth-century Basle printer Oporin, intent on publishing, despite his money difficulties with the Fuggers, an invaluable work in the field of Byzantine studies. The research is based on the unpublished correspondence of the philologist Hieronymus Wolf with Johannes Oporin, Greek scholar and printer, and constitutes a welcome addition to the nascent "wissenschaftliche Historie des Basler Buchdrucks."

Gustav Meyer describes in a twelve-page study a parchment fragment, presumably written about 1150-70, containing a part of the famous *Antapodosis* of Liuprand of Cremona. The fragment, rescued from menial duty as a binding for a cashbook in an office of the Swiss national archives, constitutes one of the UBL's

most valuable items of importance to the history of the ninth and tenth centuries.

The splendid Wilhelm Wackernagel collection in the UBL, gift of the heirs of the distinguished Basle professor, produced a study which highlights Wackernagel's tome, known to all philologists, and his part in the compilation of the 1854 version of the *Basler Gesangbuch*. Heinrich Nidecker, contributor of the Wackernagel study, considers this hymnal "ein sehr wichtiges Dokument und eine beachtliche künstlerische Leistung," a contention which may not find complete acceptance in all quarters, however.

An outstanding contemporary master of German style, the Germanist Andreas Heusler, is singled out for study by Theodore Salfinger. A keen analytical report results from his notes, made while arranging the private manuscripts which constitute the Heusler collection recently acquired by the UBL.

In his discussion of "La Bulle d'excommunication de Georges de Supersaxo," Dr. P.-E. Schazmann puts the spotlight on one of the major rarities in his library, referring to it as "le plus ancien, le plus beau et l'un des plus intéressants textes officiels des collections de la Bibliothèque nationale." The document not only possesses historical interest but is exciting paleographically as well.

The importance of the notable Helvetica collection deposited in the Bürgerbibliothek Luzern is described by Meinrad Schnellmann. Now numbering fifteen hundred manuscripts, with representation in law, liturgies and church history, heraldry, genealogy, societies and organizations, folklore, music, and other classifications, the collection is expected to grow still further.

Of genealogical interest are *Die Stammbücher der Universitätsbibliothek Basel*, most of which date back to the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, their period of florescence. Christoph Vischer, who examined them, finds that their original owners represent almost exclusively the best-known Basle families and educators.

In the longest contribution to the *Festschrift*, the Berne scholar and librarian, Professor Hans Georg Wirz establishes for the first time that the *Practica der Wundartzney* of 1506 stems from Felix Wirtz, Jr. (not Sr.), who, like his father, was a medical practitioner. The son successfully imbedded his "print-shy" father's materials in the most popular medical manual of that day.

The 1612 edition turned out to be "bereichert und verbessert" at the hand of the business-minded Basle publisher, who had access to the papers of the younger "Felix Würtzen Weyland des berühmten und wolerfahrenen Wundartzts zu Basel."

Three contributors to the *Festschrift* chose topics bearing more directly on library practice. Dr. Flury delves into library law, Dr. Groszer views library interdependence and co-operation in Switzerland, and Philipp Schmidt advocates extending the function of the subject catalog.

The epistolary relationship between Jacob Christophe Iselin and the pride of Neuchâtel, Louis Bourguet, is given scholarly attention by Dr. Godet, who sees Swiss librarianship at its best exemplified in Iselin, the "vir incomparabilis" of the UBL.

The essay by Dr. Bourgeois—second in the volume—underscores the importance of Switzerland's libraries to national life. This reviewer felt that it might well have been placed last; it would thus have served admirably to round out the whole series, if such is necessary in a *Festschrift*.

Aside from admiring the great bibliographical wealth stored in Swiss libraries, and particularly the UBL, American librarians who read the *Festschrift* critically will find themselves wishing that there were more Schwarbers heading our own university libraries.

E. HEYSE DUMMER

Bradley University Library
Peoria, Illinois

Guide to Research in Educational History. By WILLIAM W. BRICKMAN. New York: New York University Bookstore, 1949. Pp. 220. \$2.75.

In an admirable work, *Guide to Research in Educational History*, Professor Brickman has undertaken what appears to the reviewer to be two major tasks: (1) to provide a manual on historical methodology replete "with specific instances of how historiographical procedures may be used in education research" (p. iv) and (2) to demonstrate that "the study of educational history according to recognized principles and practices of scientific historical research is a far more exciting process than concentration upon mere textbook materials" (p. iv). The book is designed to meet the needs of

persons of widely varying background and preparation—"students writing undergraduate and graduate term reports, as well as those of candidates for the M.A., Ph.D., and Ed.D." (p. v).

This ambitious undertaking is, on the whole, well executed from the standpoint of both content and organization. The first chapter presents a rather elementary discussion of the values in educational history, the selection of a topic, and the initial planning of the paper or investigation. This is followed by chapters dealing with the search for materials and with the aids, guides, and other tools of historical research in education. These chapters include a most comprehensive annotated bibliography of textbooks, monographs, sources and source collections, and treatises on the nature and writing of history. Concluding chapters discuss note-taking, the technique of presentation, and the evaluation of the report. The middle half of the book (chap. v) is devoted to a summary of the essential features of method and to a detailed examination of how historical method is applied to education.

The discussion of the application of historical method is interesting, generally critical, and always fresh. It must be read, however, with the author's broad purposes and presumed audience in mind. The reader should also note that the author is not attempting to provide a definitive treatment but a manual that is to be supplemented by lecture, discussion, and reading of such standard texts in historical methodology as Hockett's *Introduction to Research in American History*, Johnson's *The Historian and Historical Evidence*, Garraghan's *A Guide to Historical Method*, and the old but valuable *Introduction to the Study of History* by Langlois and Seignobos.

The attempt to realize broad purposes, to assist students of widely varying levels of attainment, and generally to encompass so much in such a small volume is responsible, no doubt, for the author's failure to expand and qualify statements that are not acceptable to most historians or are at best correct only in relation to a very broad context. For example, the author states: "In fact, historians would rather rely upon first-rate secondary sources than upon doubtful and fragmentary primary sources" (p. 108). This the writer does not mean, unless he is referring to secondary sources based upon primary sources which were not fragmentary

but which, by some means, have become so. In another instance the author writes: "Statements by reliable writers living in ancient times, or at any other period for which documentary evidence is sparse, are considered facts even though they cannot be subjected to the critical canons of historiography" (p. 95). Further reading reveals that Brickman does not consider such statements facts but only assertions of a witness generally regarded as reliable. Similar lapses mar an otherwise excellent presentation.

Brickman has presented an invaluable bibliography, an excellent textbook on methodology, and a wealth of illustrative material. His book contains a timely warning to educators who seek historical analogies to bolster preconceived notions and to the lazy-minded and naïve who accept the authority of print. His painstaking presentation of the misuse of the Dame school illustration and of instances of borrowing from other writers contains lessons for experienced historians as well as for neophytes. His criticism of procedures employed by Flexner in a section of *Universities: American, English, and German* deserves wide circulation, and the author's analysis of a recent attempt to read the character of historical personages from photographic reproductions of their painted portraits should end this particular type of nonsense.

The book constitutes a much-needed contribution to methodology and probably will continue to be the most useful text of its kind for teachers and students in the field of the history of education until it is replaced by Brickman's promised revision.

HERMAN G. RICHEY

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Subject Index to Books for Intermediate Grades.

Compiled by ELOÏSE RUE. 2d ed. Chicago: American Library Association, 1950. Pp. lxxix+493. \$6.00.

Teachers, school administrators, and librarians will welcome a new edition of *Subject Index to Books for Intermediate Grades*. In the last ten years the first edition has proved its value both in the classroom and in the library. This 1950 edition more or less replaces the original volume and its 1943 supplement.

The compiler has expanded this edition from approximately thirteen hundred to about eight-

een hundred titles, including outstanding tradebooks and accepted school texts, geared to the reading level of the upper-elementary-school child. Because of their varied supplementary use, tradebooks dominate the *Index*, but one wishes that more textbooks were available for inclusion. One of the greatest needs in the present-day teaching of reading and social studies is the availability of good supplementary texts.

It is encouraging to find *My Weekly Reader* included as another type of source material for youngsters who are beginning to read magazines.

Every effort has been made by the compiler and her committee to analyze and organize this *Index* for maximum use. The Introduction to the volume clarifies certain changes in the new edition. The inclusion and deletion of certain subject fields from the courses of study and the interpretation of changes in certain subject headings have been noted. Literature selections have been made from the general reading areas, from books on folklore, and from translations appropriate for intermediate grades. No references to plays or poetry are given, but attention is directed to the indexes already existing in these areas.

The material in this volume is presented under two major indexes.

Part I, "List of Books Indexed," is a complete list of all sources, alphabetically arranged by author, which gives title, copyright date, price, series, grade placement, and legend symbols (*M* for music, *H* for handicraft, etc.) as well as a few explanatory words. In addition, for certain titles asterisks indicate their desirability for first purchase. Any graded index of books prepared for pupil-teacher use is a barometer of existing educational theories and philosophies, and the many titles cited emphasize the dependence of the average elementary-school teacher today upon a variety of sources to enrich and vitalize her teaching.

Recognition of another educational trend is shown in the list of titles that provide for individual reading differences among children. Vocabulary difficulty has been indicated in the material for the fourth through the seventh grade as a guide for the accelerated, as well as the slower, reader.

Part II, "Subject Index to Books for Intermediate Grades," comprises nearly two-thirds of the volume. Here, under a wide range of subject headings, the various book sources are listed by author, giving title-page, reference and grade

placement, and legend symbol. Other subject headings refer the reader to various related areas of information. The scope and sequence of the intermediate curriculum have been very well covered in this index. School curriculums for intermediate grades vary greatly throughout the country; no index could satisfy every need. Certainly, the types of material that have been indexed are those typically needed in the average elementary classroom and are available to most school systems. The volume will be most helpful to those who, in planning a curriculum, desire related bibliographies as well as references to reading matter for the upper-grade elementary-school children.

LOIS FANNIN

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"Planning School Library Quarters: A Functional Approach." By SUB-COMMITTEE ON LIBRARY SERVICE TO SCHOOLS PLANNING BOARD OF ILLINOIS LIBRARY ASSOCIATION; MILDRED L. NICKEL, Chairman. Chicago: American Library Association, 1950. Pp. 53. 1.50. (Lithoprinted.)

Furniture making, library supervision, school administration, and education for school librarianship are among the work responsibilities represented by members of the committee which prepared this paper-bound booklet. Miss Nickel, the chairman, is librarian of the Lyons Township High School and Junior College, La Grange, Illinois. According to the committee's statement, the material was prepared for use by administrators, librarians, and architects, and it is intended to help those concerned to come to a satisfactory conclusion in regard to such matters as the possibilities of converting a classroom into quarters for a school library, the relationship of library and study areas, and the other problems usually involved in planning for and equipment of the physical library.

Miss Nickel and her committee have given major emphasis to (1) expanding concepts of school-library service, (2) space relationships implied in provision for adequate service, and (3) furniture which is recommended for the various areas of library service. A discussion of the library-study hall also is provided; acoustical treatment, lighting, ventilation, and color are covered.

Photographs, floor plans, and sketches of furniture and furniture details are used in illustration. Some floor plans show furniture placement, others show only space allocation. Libraries for small and large schools are included, and for elementary and high schools. A plan for multiple-space provision in a junior-senior high school with an enrolment of five hundred is particularly interesting. There is a bibliography of approximately forty entries; there is an Index.

As the publication's subtitle indicates, Miss Nickel's committee has employed an approach to the matter of planning school-library quarters which begins by establishing the functions of library service as the basis for determining the proportions and the characteristics of physical facilities. There are certain services to be performed; certain space areas and certain equipment are therefore necessary. Many materials of varied types are needed in support of the educational program; they are, therefore, the materials of school-library service, and for their effective organization and use a certain amount of space and certain specialized types of furnishings are required. An unusual amount of detail in regard to furniture construction, to lighting, and to ceiling, window, and floor treatment is given.

The architect who uses the publication may feel that Miss Nickel and her committee have taken him rather far into the field of the philosophy of school-library service; the librarian may feel somewhat lost in general building details. Actually, the architect who meets with a building committee may find it pleasantly novel, after his first surprise, to be reminded by the librarian that it is desirable "to line all ventilating ducts with sound-absorbent material as far back from the openings as ten times the average cross-sectional dimensions of the duct," and he may be inclined to listen with respect to subsequent recommendations usually considered more nearly within the province of library service. The librarian who hears the architect defend forty as a maximum number of students to be accommodated in a combined study hall-library will be quite likely to sympathize with the architect's interest in architectural integrity. And so it should be—with the manufacturer gratified to find that the school administrator appreciates the behind-the-scenes effort which goes into the production of fine furniture and the administrator, in turn, recognizing the logic in the librarian's suggestion that the library be planned as a

true materials center. Certainly, it is desirable for those who work and plan together to have access to a community of ideas and to be able to employ a common language.

The publication is handily designed, as far as its size and general arrangement are concerned. Many items of information which have a reference value are found throughout. Outlines and tables have been used sparingly, and it would have been a convenience if they had been more generously employed. *Planning School Library Quarters* is an important addition to a growing literature in this field.

SUE HEFLEY

Supervisor of School Libraries
Baton Rouge, Louisiana

The Teacher-Librarian's Handbook. By MARY PEACOCK DOUGLAS. 2d ed. Chicago: American Library Association, 1949. Pp. 166. \$2.75.

The dedication of the book sets the pace for its soundness and practicality. Mrs. Douglas has had rich opportunity to observe effective practices in school libraries and to participate in the development of such practices; she dedicates her book to the North Carolina school librarians who have shared their ideas for the improvement of school-library service.

The earlier edition of this manual has, since its publication in 1941, been an invaluable tool for teachers and librarians who have responsibility for the organization and administration of school libraries without benefit of adequate professional education in the specialized field. The second edition will, no doubt, continue this record of service. Characterized by a sound approach, clarity of statement, and directness of suggestion, the handbook is easy to read and to use, so that the novice at school librarianship will find it an ever ready tool and the experienced practitioner will also find it interesting and helpful.

The opening statement of the educational philosophy underlying functional school-library service is well worth consideration by all school and library personnel. It is significant that the relationship of the teacher-librarian with the pupils is discussed first. Emphasis here, as in other chapters, is upon the library as a teaching and learning station and upon the school librarian as a teacher assigned to special services in the area of instructional materials. The sugges-

tions of ways in which he might discharge these functions are practical and sound.

The section dealing with the work of student library assistants suggests tasks which students might perform and ways in which the assistants might be trained. While Mrs. Douglas does emphasize the importance of giving them as varied library experiences as possible and suggests some suitable ones, this section might have been even stronger if it had included emphasis upon the recognition of this area as one through which the school might provide opportunities for boys and girls to participate in planning and carrying out the school program. It might also have emphasized the function of guidance in identifying the educational values to be derived from such library experience and in providing it for those most likely to benefit.

The aids suggested for the teacher-librarian and the library club are among the especially valuable parts of the book.

The chapters on organizing the various parts of the collection, selection and acquisition of materials, and administering the library service describe the various processes clearly and concisely. The lists of necessary supplies and equipment are useful, as are the annotated bibliographies of recommended book-selection tools, the lists of sources of supplies, books, periodicals, and other materials.

This edition includes much new material on audio-visual aids to learning, with descriptions of types of materials, sources of information about their selection, organization, and use, and suggestions for cataloging and distributing them.

The current emphasis upon the library as the materials center of the school is recognized in the treatment of housing and equipment; there are also suggestions concerning storage facilities for the newer media of communication.

This second edition of *The Teacher-Librarian's Handbook* deserves a place close to every school librarian as a practical, useful tool. As the author states, it is intended not as a substitute for library training but as an aid to the teacher or librarian with little professional library training, to serve until he has opportunity to acquire more nearly adequate preparation for the work.

FANNIE SCHMITT

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Manual of Book Classification and Display for Public Libraries. By ERNEST A. SAVAGE. ("Library Association Series," Vol. VIII.) London: George Allen & Unwin, Ltd., and the Library Association, 1949. Pp. 240. 12s. 6d.

This is the second impression of a book originally issued in 1946, and apparently no editing or revising of the original text has been done. As a manual the book gives a great deal of space to techniques, examples, and instruction. It goes rather deeply into the discussion of theories of book classification; also it touches on the nature of book stock, depositories, and the theory of librarianship—and wanders far afield. Mr. Savage has thus given a very broad interpretation to the word "display." His method is legitimate, but one may object that in so doing he has confused the nature of the work; consequently, we have neither a practical manual or handbook nor a full discussion of the subject from an administrative point of view.

As indicated, Savage considers classification as belonging in the general realm of display ("The objects of classification and of display are identical"), and he feels that he has rather thoroughly disposed of present methods of classification as not entirely satisfactory schemes—dealing with the Dewey system with particular venom. In considering the proposals suggested by Savage, one is struck by the amount of time and experience required to carry them out, not to mention the fact that printed materials cannot be dealt with as he implies. He states: "The grouping of books is an art, a rather delightful art, not a science. My aim is to throw off the fetters of pedantry and vain endeavour." At this date these ideas on classification are still rather startling, if not revolutionary, to many and will make stimulating reading for anyone interested in the general problem of revealing the subject matter of books to the reader.

My impression is that the major portion of the book will offer little in the way of new ideas or techniques of display to an American audience; however, it should serve as an excellent stimulus to those who have not fully accepted the idea that "public relations," as the entire field is called, is an important function of the public library. The consideration of the various types and methods of display is detailed and quite explicit, but much of this has been covered for us in the discussions of library architecture and other works which are available. Certainly,

Savage is an ardent promoter of library display and has given considerable time and thought to the development of excellent ideas and suggestions which are practical and which have no doubt proved very useful. The book contains a number of good illustrations.

I should take issue with one argument which is repeated several times: "Books on topics of the day are rarely worth exhibiting, as readers need no inducement, at the time, to borrow what they want." Certainly, not all topics of the day are actually "wanted," unless we are speaking only of the so-called "best sellers." One reason for display is to make the reader aware of what information is available and to create a desire for it. This is as true of current topics as it is of past history or of needlecraft. Again he says: "Don't show a book in an approach or front window unless it be rare, or obtainable only for reference"; presumably, the idea is to keep all books available. He mentions items which are useful for such front-window displays but neglects to mention the book jacket as one of the best, when used on a dummy. But perhaps colorful book jackets are not so prevalent in England, and, if so, their use by publishers should certainly be promoted!

Since Savage has such an evident interest in display, it is rather startling to find him doubting the advisability of the thirteen display windows of the Enoch Pratt Free Library building solely on the basis of supposition. Indeed, I believe most librarians would be hesitant about the responsibility of thirteen window arrangements every three weeks. I agree that his query as to whether "over a long period there will be an equivalent return in *extra* use of the annual outlay" is well taken. Although no American library built since the Pratt building has incorporated as many windows, I feel certain that staff and public alike would testify to their desirability. The answer lies, I fear, in the realm of intangibles; but in Baltimore we have strengthened our exhibits work rather than reduced it, and we are willing to state categorically that the exhibit windows have been important in making Baltimore conscious of its library.

Other than the expected differences in terminology and manner of writing, it would seem that Savage has indulged too frequently in a flippant style. In speaking of additional display materials, he says: "Here are some other playthings"; and, later on, "... are fine examples of fustpottery, but all the best librarians I have

known have been fusspots. It's an old maid's job, librarianship!" This will discourage many readers, as well as give a false impression of librarians; it may even raise in the reader's mind doubt as to Savage's real convictions.

EMERSON GREENAWAY

Enoch Pratt Free Library
Baltimore, Maryland

County Library Practice: A Manual for Students.

By EDGAR OSBORNE and F. A. SHARR. London: Library Association, 1950. Pp. viii+136. 10s. 6d.

Although designed as a textbook, this volume will be of interest to all librarians engaged in extension work, whether in the British Isles or in other countries. It is, in fact, broader in scope than the title might indicate, as it deals with objectives and policies as well as practical methods. Certainly, the student referred to in the subtitle, when he has mastered the contents of this relatively small book, will have an excellent background for a beginning in county library work.

The authors deal with various phases of county library administration in five chapters headed, respectively, "Organization of Headquarters," "The Urban Service," "The Rural Service," "Finance and Administration," and "Buildings." Five statistical tables give comparative information on the county libraries of England, Wales, Scotland, and North Ireland. An appendix contains definitions of words and phrases peculiar to county library service that are recommended for adoption in a uniform terminology.

Many county library routines are described in detail, and some are illustrated with sample forms. However, procedures and practices common to both county and municipal libraries have, for the most part, been omitted.

To county and regional librarians in the United States, the chapters on urban and rural service are perhaps of most interest, as the analysis of basic objectives and problems seems to be as applicable in this country as in the British Isles to libraries serving an area larger than one municipality. For example, in apprais-

ing the "centre system" of service to country districts, the following paragraph, with the change of a few terms, might be written about any California county library:

To ignore the weaknesses inherent in the village centre as a library service point is shortsighted but to condemn it out of hand is equally unjust. The time is perhaps approaching when the mobile library will supersede the centre and bring a large bookstock and qualified staff to the villages and even to lonely moorland farms, but it is nevertheless true that, within the limit of its bookstock, the centre can be an effective service point. In the hands of a keen and educated local librarian supported by an efficient professional system, open two nights a week in the village hall, with an adequate bookstock properly displayed on shelves, it can give a service of which no library authority need be ashamed, and which cannot be provided in any other way.

The itemized advantages and disadvantages of the mobile library are also fundamental enough to be applicable to county library situations in America.

Since their beginnings in 1910, the county libraries of England, Scotland, and Wales, unlike all other public library authorities, have been subordinated to the education system, which, as in this country, is well established and powerful. Apparently, this has been, and still is, a great cause of controversy in the profession. The main arguments for and against the library's remaining under the Education Committee are given fully and clearly, and they apply almost perfectly to the parallel controversy in this country, where the trend toward the inclusion of libraries in departments of education is most evident on the state level.

This book, together with the August, 1950, issue of the *Library Association Record* devoted to county libraries, are convincing evidence that the county librarians of the British Isles have accepted responsibility for research in the extension field and are making known their findings in valuable and scholarly publications. County and regional libraries in the United States are, by contrast, sadly lacking in such representation in professional literature.

ELEANOR H. MORGAN

California State Library
Sacramento, California

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